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ABSTRACT

A study guide is presented for a course designed for the continuing education of professional librarians at the level of middle or upper management who find that they need understanding about human resources in the library system beyond that acquired on the job or in previous library education. The course has four units: (1) Management: A Systems Perspective and Approach; (2) The Worker--Human Being/Personality: A Systems Perspective and Approach; (3) Work, Management, and the Worker: An Integration of the System; and (4) Developing the Library's Human Resources: Managerial Strategies. Each unit is divided into several sections, for which objectives and course outlines are given. There is an annotated bibliography at the end of each section. An optional fifth unit contains three enrichment modules concerning the history of management concepts, concepts of management revealed through three major social groups, the effects of unions on employees and managers, and evaluation of the influences of perception in the work situation. (LS)

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Post-Master's Education for Middle and Upper-Level Personnel in Libraries and Information Centers

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COURSE II

HUMAN RESOURCES IN THE LIBRARY SYSTEM

STUDY GUIDE

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HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

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Catholic University's continuing education courses in library science at the post-MLS level have been developed through the creative assistance of many colleagues. Following is a partial list of those contributors (the affiliations indicated are those just prior to, or during, their association with the project.)

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The Catholic University of America's

Continuing Education Project in Library Science

The Catholic University of America's Continuing Education Project in Library Science has as its major goal the development of courses adapted to present and future library job requirements. The course materials are designed to meet the actual on-the-job needs of middle and upper-level library personnel who have completed a master's degree in library science and who have gained practical experience in a library environment.

Three courses have been developed by the project: Human Resources in the Library System, The Governmental Library Simulation for the Study of Administration of a Special Library, and Application of Computer Technology to Library Processes. For each set of course materials, the data base which was used was provided by Phase I of the research project,[1] which concentrated on an analysis of job dimensions and educational needs of middle and upper-level library personnel who had a master's degree in library science.

Of the 78 courses to which the respondents in the study reacted, the highest demand was for courses in automation, administration of the governmental library, administrative policies and practices, and human relations in library administration. In the project the assumption was made that curriculum planning for post-MLS courses should combine judgments not only of those performing the jobs, but also of top-level administrators who are setting the standards for hiring and promotion and are in key positions to know what libraries need in additional competencies for personnel in order to meet adequately the needs of clients in a time of great societal and technological change. The top-level library administrators thought the courses most

[1]James J. Kortendick, and Elizabeth W. Stone. Post-Master's Education for Middle and Upper-Level Personnel in Libraries and Information Centers. Final Report, Phase I. (Washington, D.C.: Department of Library Science, The Catholic University of America, 1970) (ED 038 985). Subsequently revised and republished as Job Dimensions and Educational Needs of Middle and Upper-Level Library Personnel (Chicago: American Library Association, 1971).

needed at a level beyond the curriculum of the master's degree program in library science were: human relations in library administration, administrative policies and practices, policy formation and decision making, and automation of library processes.

Through the use of a job inventory, the survey also ascertained what activities the librarians were spending most of their time doing and what activities they considered most important in the performance of their jobs. Far outranking any other activity in the dimensions of both time and importance was : directly supervising and guiding subordinates. The rating by the respondents of the 223 job activities covered in the inventory provided valuable data for determining how much emphasis should be given to different concepts that are presented in each of the three courses that have been developed.

Findings from the questionnaire and the interviews conducted during Phase I of the project shed considerable light on necessary attributes of formal courses at the post-master's level if they are to appeal to practicing librarians. High quality programs and practical courses relevant to their present positions were the two curriculum-centered conditions that were mentioned most often by the respondents. From the free response answers of librarian respondents and their supervisors, it was apparent that quality was equated with interdisciplinary and systems oriented course content which would provide for a wide range of instructional strategies including a multi-media approach. Or, as one respondent expressed it: "New programs should be just that -- new -- based on innovative methods which make full use of the educational technology concepts available today." The criteria put forth by the librarians themselves have served as the guidelines for those developing the three courses which constitute CUA's Continuing Education Project. For example, The Governmental Library Simulation uses simulation as its mode of teaching, while the course Human Resources in the Library System employs a wide variety of structured experiences related to on-the-job library problems.

Throughout, a systems approach has been used which has facilitated the integration of knowledge from many sources with concerns of a particular course. Use of a systems approach in the development of these courses has also involved: (1) specification of behavioral objectives based on actual on-the-job learning needs; (2) assessment of student repertories; (3) development of instructional strategies; (4) testing; (5) revising instructional units (validation); and (6) packaging the course which is to be

administered. Thus, the learning experiences have been designed to produce the behavior specified for each course.

On page iv are the names of our colleagues who have helped in the development of these courses especially designed for librarians at the post-MLS level. Some of them worked on a full-time basis for a given time span; others were part-time or occasional consultants, contributing to some aspect of a course, but all were valued and dedicated collaborators who deserve the gratitude of everyone who cares about the continuing education of librarians and the improvement of library service.

CUA's Continuing Education Project, officially entitled "Post-Master's Education for Middle and Upper-Level Personnel in Libraries and Information Centers," and emanating from the University's Department of Library Science, has received financial support from the Bureau of Research, United States Office of Education and The Catholic University of America.

Rev. James J. Kortendick, S.S.
Elizabeth W. Stone

Directors of CUA's Continuing Education Project in Library Science
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PROLOGUE

Objectives:

The objectives of this course are essentially three: (1) to gain an understanding of human behavior; (2) to see how human behavior affects work behavior; and (3) to discover conditions and strategies that will facilitate the development of the human resources in library systems.

This course is designed to help you answer questions such as the following:

What is the management philosophy operative in your library at the present time?

What type of management philosophy would you like to see operative in your library?

What is your responsibility as a library supervisor to see that employees have opportunities to grow and develop on the job?

What types of leadership patterns make possible change and adaptation in a library system so that it can respond constructively to environmental forces affecting it?

Why is it important that you be concerned about the theory of management?

How can research findings from the behavioral sciences help solve library problems?

What can you do as a supervisor to stimulate the motivation of the employees with whom you work?

Prologue

Where does the course begin?

The course begins with you and your needs as you see them in relation to your library job. The first session is designed to provide an opportunity for you to get acquainted with the other members of the group and the leader, and to discover the expectations and objectives each of you brings to the course. What do you hope to get from the course? What specific aids or help are you hoping to gain? You may have questions and issues of far greater importance to you than those previously mentioned. Your needs and those of other participants will influence how much weight and attention are given to the various content elements of the course.

The Study Guide:

The Study Guide provides a general view of the course. Clearly, you will not be expected to memorize its content, for to do so would be a waste of time. Rather, it has been designed to serve as a guide to subject matter included in the course. It does not indicate the emphasis that will be placed on the various units of the course, for that depends on your own objectives and needs and those of the other participants. No subject is covered in adequate detail in the Study Guide, but a variety of ideas and concepts, theories and practices are present, and the bibliographies at the end of the units are annotated to provide suggestions for more detailed explorations of whatever ideas you wish to investigate further.

Work assignments:

In preparation for each session, you will be asked to write a statement describing some phase of your thinking, role, or practice in your library situation. Completing the assignments will not call for extensive reading or research on your part. The purpose of the work assignments is to direct your thinking toward particular work-related concepts and possible solutions to on-the-job problems.

Reading:

Bibliographies:

The bibliographies located at the end of each unit include a wide range of writings from different philosophical viewpoints within the areas of management, behavioral science, library and information science. You will be expected to read widely during the course, but you are free to read what you want, and need not restrict your readings to those suggested. The bibliographies are intended to represent a storehouse from which you may draw whatever has the most meaning or is of special interest to you. The annotations should help you choose the places

you wish to start.

Readings on human behavior in organizations:

In addition to the bibliographies, a special collection of readings on human behavior in organizations has been selected for you from a wide variety of sources, chiefly the behavioral disciplines and management literature. The readings represent various points of view; some are classics, and others little known.

This collection is intended for your browsing, and, if institutional arrangements permit, you will receive your own copy of these readings. As you follow your interests throughout the course, you are likely to find here many ideas that will stimulate your thinking and open new perspectives on human behavior in organizations.

Designs for learning:

A wide variety of structured experiences concerning library work-related problems in human relations has been designed for this course. The term "structured experiences" refers to participant activty that some person -- in this course that person is designated the leader -- suggests, directs or leads. The purpose is to provide you opportunities for practicing problem-solving techniques and other forms of behavior you might not be willing to experiment with in real life on the job. The structured experiences in which you will participate include role plays, case studies, simulation games, in-basket exercises, and many related activities.

Content:

The course has four core units and one optional unit.

Unit 1: Management: A Systems Perspective and Approach
which deals chiefly with the evolution of modern management and the objectives of management in the library.

Unit 2: The Worker -- Human Being/Personality: A Systems Perspective and Approach
which presents one model of human behavior, discusses some of the key elements of that model such as adjustment, needs, frustration, aggression, anxiety, and examines briefly some other theories of personality.

Prologue

Unit 3: Work, Management and the Worker: An Integration of the System
An Integration of the System
which deals with management as a system and its integration into the worker system; the librarian-worker as a system and its integration into the management system; and the interaction and response of the managerial system's goals and the worker system's goals.

Unit 4: Developing the Library's Human Resources:
Managerial Strategies
The largest block of time is devoted to this unit which covers perception; motivation theories in the work place as exemplified by Argyris, McGregor, Likert, Herzberg, McClelland and Gellerman; and OD (Organizational Development).

Unit 5: Enrichment Modules
The material in this unit is optional; the participants' interest will determine whether or not it is used. A variety of subjects are covered including: history of management concepts; concepts of management revealed through three major social groups; the effects of unions on employees and managers; and evaluation of the influences of perception in the work situation.

The enrichment modules are designed to provide additional information for those participants who may have special interests or needs for more information in a specific area than can be provided in the limited time span of the course. They can be used as independent study packages, equivalent to a type of programmed learning, as supplementary material to the basic content of the course, or as a starting point for further research in a particular area.

For example, since labor unions are becoming more active in libraries today, an enrichment module has been prepared giving general background information about unionism and a detailed annotated reading list that includes the chief articles on unionism appearing in library literature up to the present time.

Evaluation:

Evaluating your achievements.

Each time this course is offered, the requirements will vary somewhat depending on the leader, the institution, and the needs and objectives of the participants. For this reason, it cannot be specified here exactly what the requirements will be. Requirements should be clarified early in the course, however, and you should feel free to bring up the subject yourself if for any reason you think it has not been adequately discussed.

The leader is responsible for some sort of evaluation of each participant's achievements in the course, because the institution requires that grades be officially submitted. This evaluation will be determined in part on the way you fulfill the course requirements, and in part on your ability to apply what you have learned to situations arising during the course.

So that the evaluation can be based on realistic learning objectives, you should arrange to talk with the leader early in the course in order to set up your own short and long-term objectives for the course. A follow-up session should be held later on so that you can discuss your evaluation of the manner in which you accomplished your goals. At the same time you might, in conversation with the leader, set forth some long-range goals for your own self-directed continuing education following the conclusion of the course.

You are encouraged to take responsibility for your own learning and evaluation. This requires that you think carefully about what you want to learn within the context of the course. It requires that you consider how best to take advantage of the learning opportunities the course provides to meet your own needs and objectives. It also requires a spirit of inquiry and willingness to explore a variety of new ideas, techniques, and actions.

Evaluating the course.

To improve sessions of the course as it proceeds and to improve the overall course content and designs for learning, you will be asked to evaluate the course, the leader's effectiveness, and the manner in which the course has been carried out. These will be anonymous evaluations. Two forms have been prepared for you to use, but you need not limit your reactions to those on the printed forms. One is a post-meeting reactionnaire, in which you have the opportunity to provide feedback to the leader throughout the course after designated sessions. The other provides you an opportunity to evaluate the total course shortly before it ends. These

evaluations can be extremely valuable to the leader as well as to the course developers in improving both the content and the structured learning situations.

Responsibility:

In closing, a word is in order about responsibility. The leader is responsible for creating with participants a setting in which learning and open communication are facilitated and mutual respect and understanding are enhanced. He is responsible for assisting participants in meeting their self-determined goals. He must also set the limits of the course and fulfill whatever requirements are imposed upon him by the institution.

You, as a participant in the course, are responsible for clarifying your own goals and for selecting the ways and means most helpful in achieving those goals. You are also responsible for fulfilling the requirements of the course, for the quality and significance of your work, and for taking a creative approach to learning.

Perhaps even more important is the attitude of both leader and participants in coming to this course. This is not the kind of course in which a teacher imparts knowledge to students who then attempt to memorize it. The course is based instead on the idea of a community of learners, a community in which all members (leader and participants) recognize that each is in process of change and learning. The challenge and its importance are forcefully expressed by Rogers:[1]

> We are, in my view, faced with an entirely new situation in education where the goal of education, if we are to survive, is the facilitation of change and learning. The only man who is educated is the man who has learned how to learn; the man who has learned how to adapt and change; the man who has realized that no knowledge is secure, that only the process of seeking knowledge gives a basis for security. Changingness, a reliance on process rather than upon static knowledge, is the only thing that makes any sense as a goal for education in the modern world....
>
> Here then is a goal to which I can give myself wholeheartedly. I see the facilitation of learning as the aim of education, the way

[1]Carl R. Rogers, Freedom to Learn (Columbus, Ohio:Merrill, 1969) pp. 104-105.

in which we can learn to live as individuals in process. I see the facilitation of learning as the function which may hold constructive, tentative, changing, process answers to some of the deepest perplexities which beset man today.

1 UNIT 1
MANAGEMENT:
A SYSTEMS PERSPECTIVE
AND APPROACH

1 OVERALL OBJECTIVES

UNIT 1

1.1 Evolution of Modern Management.

- 1.11 To trace briefly the evolution of management concepts to 1900.
- 1.12 To examine briefly the need for organizations, the phenomena they produce, and how these phenomena affect the management process and the worker.
- 1.13 To examine the concepts of scientific management and its impact on management thought in the early 20th century.
- 1.14 To show why the theories and concepts of the behavioral sciences have become increasingly significant in current day management thinking and study.
- 1.15 To examine the effect of unions on employees and management.

1.2 The Objectives of Management.

- 1.21 To examine the objectives of management.
- 1.22 To examine top management's expectations of its managers and supervisors.
- 1.23 To examine how supervisors respond to management's expectations.
- 1.24 To examine some management assumptions about human nature and how these assumptions affect managerial strategy.

1 OBJECTIVES

UNIT 1
SECTION 1

1.1 Evolution of Modern Management.

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Unit 1: Section 1

Evolution of Modern Management

1.1 Evolution of Modern Management

To appreciate management thought today, it is essential to have the perspective of what went before, the wider circle of events surrounding the chief landmarks in the evolution of modern management. The purpose of this unit is to provide such perspective.

In the past, the application of managerial principles and techniques was limited to business organizations. Today, however, organization theory is based increasingly on the behavioral sciences, and it involves concepts of human motivation, small group behavior, leadership, decision making, participation, staff and executive development. The tools of organizational analysis and influence are now as relevant for service-oriented organizations, such as libraries and schools, as they are for business firms. In fact, in a recent article, Bennis states:

> This nation has become the only country to employ more people in services than in production of tangible goods. The growth industries today, if we can call them that, are education, health, welfare, and other professional institutions. The problem facing organizations is no longer manufacturing -- it is the management of large-scale sociotechnical systems and the strategic deployment of high-grade professional talent.[1]

1.11 To trace briefly the evolution of management concepts to 1900.

1.111 Management concepts evolved in the past on the basis of need, without study, research or formalization; but historically there is evidence of attempts to manage and organize.

---

[1]Warren G. Bennis, "The Leader of the Future," Public Management, 52:14, March, 1970.

1.112 Problems of management in the work place became serious at the time of the Industrial Revolution, when large numbers of people were brought together to operate the new machinery.[1]

1.1121 A key feature of industrialization was standardization.

1.1122 The system was designed for efficiency, and it was assumed that human needs could be ignored.

1.1123 Work was seen as an impersonal exchange of labor for money.

1.1124 Workers were seen as commodities to be bought and paid for with wages. They were viewed as instruments for achieving greater production rather than as human beings with needs and emotions.

1.1125 Adam Smith, the 18th century Scottish economist whose ideas had considerable influence on the subsequent development of management theory, observed that "the division of labour, by reducing every man's business to some one simple operation, and by making this operation the sole employment of his life, necessarily increases very much the dexterity of the workman."[2] The more dexterous the workman, the greater his productivity and the greater the industry's profits.

1.1126 Wages were viewed as the sole motivating force behind employee action as profit was considered the sole motivating force behind employer action.

1.1127 In the early 19th century, Robert Owen, a British industrialist, attempted to establish a "new system of management" at his cotton mills in New Lanark, Scotland. The new system, as Owen himself described it, was based on "principles of justice and kindness," and its aim was to "supersede the evil conditions with which the population was surrounded by good conditions."[3]

1.1128 Owen's ideas were far ahead of his time, however, and he had no imitators among his fellow industrialists. Concern for the worker as an individual in the organization was generally disregarded for another century.

---

[1] For a more detailed discussion of management before the Industrial Revolution, see Enrichment Module 1.

[2] Adam Smith, An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations (New York: Modern Library, 1937), p. 7.

[3] Robert Owen, The Life of Robert Owen; Written by Himself, With Selections from His Writings and Correspondence (New York: Augustus M. Kelley, 1967), Vol. 1, pp. 60-61.

1.113 Major assumptions of management in the 19th century.

1.1131 Man is only motivated by, and receives work satisfaction from, economic gain.

1.1132 The worker has no aspirations to dignity, no natural desire to work cooperatively or diligently unless compelled to do so.

1.1133 The worker has no revulsion for boring or tiresome work.

1.1134 Standardization increases employee happiness. In 1893, Durkheim, for example, felt that the division of labor with its subsequent specialization and standardization was normally a source of solidarity. As he stated it, "The division of labor presumes that the worker, far from being hemmed in by his task, does not lose sight of his collaborators, that he acts upon them, and reacts to them."[1]

1.1135 The worker does not know how things should be done. He is expected to accept discipline unquestioningly, and to perform his tasks in whatever way management chooses to organize them.

1.114 These assumptions prevailed throughout the 19th century, and on into the 20th. In the 1940's, Mayo vigorously attacked them, saying such assumptions are based on the "rabble hypothesis," the idea that mankind is an unorganized rabble upon which order must be imposed.[2]

1.115 As late as the beginning of the 20th century there were no formalized concepts of management.

1.1151 In 1886, the American engineer, Henry R. Towne, made a speech before the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, which has subsequently become something of a classic in the literature of management. In his speech, Towne called attention to the fact that management was of "great and far-reaching importance," yet was unorganized, almost without literature, with no medium for the interchange of experience, and without association or organization of any kind.[3]

---

[1]Emile Durkheim, The Division of Labor in Society, translated from the French by George Simpson (New York: Free Press, 1964), pp. 372-373.

[2]Elton Mayo, The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization (Boston: Harvard University Graduate School of Business Administration, 1945), pp. 34-56.

[3]Henry R. Towne, "The Engineer as an Economist," Transactions of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, 7:429, May, 1886.

1.1152 Serious study and research in the problems of management are new phenomena, and much is yet to be learned because of the infancy of the field of management.

1.12 To examine briefly the need for organizations, the phenomena they produce, and how these phenomena affect the management process and the worker.

1.121 People organize in order to accomplish goals which they cannot achieve alone. Organized group effort or thinking allows for accomplishments not attainable by individual effort or individual thinking.

1.1211 One man cannot move a large rock; two or three can.

1.1212 Problem solving in today's technology requires teamwork; a librarian cannot automate library procedure alone, but can with help of computer expert, systems analyst, programmer, etc.

1.122 Organized effort permits greater efficiency and economy.

1.1221 Efficiency is one of chief reasons for high degrees of organization.

1.1222 During the course of history, the possibility of increased efficiency has led to ever greater degrees of specialization. In turn, specialization has led to the need for coordination and control.

1.12221 Interlibrary loan, centralized processing, regional and statewide library networks -- all contribute to increased efficiency of library services and to increased complexity of library administration.

1.123 Organized effort allows possibility for greater use of diverse individual capabilities.

1.1231 The problem is to discover the differences among people and to utilize the special capacities and aptitudes of each in so far as possible.

1.1232 A key problem is the selection of leaders. Leadership ability is of overriding importance, for the way an organization grows, develops, and responds to change depends to a considerable extent on the vision, initiative, encouragement and guidance its leaders provide.[1]

1.124 Organized effort creates interdependence.

1.1241 Specialization requires coordination and control, so that the accomplishments of each person will contribute to the goals

[1] E. Wight Bakke, "Concept of the Social Organization," in Mason Haire, ed. Modern Organization Theory: A Symposium (New York: Wiley, 1959), p. 68.

of the whole organization.

1.1242 Specialization can have negative effects, by contributing to narrowing of personality and outlook, monotony on the job, suppression of initiative and creativity, and development of dependent, servile employees.

1.13 To examine the concepts of scientific management and its impact on management thought in the early 20th century.

1.131 Frederick W. Taylor began his study of work and management in the 1880's, and soon developed his task system concept. This idea grew out of Taylor's experiences as gang boss when he tried to pressure workers into increasing production. A serious struggle between workers and boss followed, and Taylor afterward decided the main cause of such conflicts is that management tries to increase workers' output without really knowing how much should be produced. If management knew exactly what constituted a proper day's work, it would be able to convince workers to produce that much.[1] He concluded that:

1.1311 An accurate time study must be made to determine the maximum speed at which work can be done. The maximum speed must be scientifically determined.

1.1312 Men must be induced to work at maximum speed by demonstration, and by a differential rate of payment--a higher rate of pay for higher output.

1.132 In 1903, Taylor presented his "Shop Management" paper setting forth the implications of his new system of management -- a system which soon came to be known as scientific management.

1.1321 The system was designed to secure the initiative of the workers, improve methods of work, and achieve high wages along with low labor costs.

1.1322 Taylor's system separated the function of planning work from that of performing work. This led to an organizational change: the creation of a planning department.

1.133 In testifying before a congressional committee in 1912, Taylor called scientific management a complete mental revolution on the part of working men and management. The great revolution that takes place in the mental attitude of the two parties under scientific management is that both sides take their eyes off the division of surplus as the all-important matter, and

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[1] Frederick W. Taylor, Scientific Management (New York: Harper, 1947), p. x.

together turn their attention toward increasing the size of the surplus until this surplus becomes so large...that there is ample room for a large increase in wages for the workmen and an equally great increase in profits for the manufacturer.[1]

1.1331 In his testimony, Taylor tried to reconcile the paradox of the need for cooperation among people in industry with the philosophy of individualism.

1.1332 The problem was to get all parties to see that all would benefit from maximum production. Increased output would result in greater wages for workers and greater profits for owners. Scientific management is based on mutuality of interest.

1.1333 The testimony showed that scientific management was more than just techniques and procedures; it was also a way of thought, a philosophy of work, a theory of motivation.

1.134 Taylor's approach to efficiency and effectiveness.

1.1341 Management must determine the one best way to accomplish each task, and workers must then be trained to accomplish tasks in the most effective way.

1.1342 Management should plan the work for each worker at least one day in advance, providing detailed instructions on how the work should be done and how much time is allowed for it.

1.1343 Tasks must be done at a regular rate that will not impair the health of workmen.

1.1344 Standardized techniques must be followed by all workers.

1.13441 Standardization of work methods was to be scientifically accomplished by means of motion study (observing all motions that lead to greatest efficiency) and time study (timing the most efficient set of motions). Production standards would be set to comply with the results of motion and time studies.

1.13442 Standardization of working conditions involved determining the best temperature for work, proper lighting, etc.

1.13443 Standardization was applicable at all managerial levels. Taylor developed the concept of "functional foremanship," the idea that the work of management must be divided so that each man has as few functions

[1] Frederick W. Taylor, "Taylor's Testimony Before the Special House Committee," in Taylor, op. cit., pp. 29-30.

1.13822 Failure to recognize individual behavior; psychology of individual is ignored.

1.13823 Failure to understand complexity of human motivation.

1.13824 Little recognition of the role of intraorganizational conflict of interest.

1.13825 Areas of problem solving and decision making neglected.

1.13826 All of Taylor's work has the flavor of engineering prescriptions for the efficient operation of human beings.

1.14 To show why theories and concepts of the behavioral sciences have become increasingly significant in current day management thinking and study.

1.141 Dissatisfaction with past techniques.

1.1411 Treating workmen as though they were little more than machines did not result in a high level of productivity. Workers often felt apathetic, careless and bitter.

1.1412 For most workers there was no alternative but to surrender and accept a meaningless, insecure, and degrading way of life.

1.1413 Mayo found evidence of this condition widespread among workers in Chicago in the 1920's, and he recalled Durkheim's term "anomie," which refers to feelings of rootlessness, lack of purpose, and indifference to one's environment. Durkheim traced anomie to the Industrial Revolution and the consequent destruction of the family as the major unit of production.[1]

1.142 The Hawthorne studies undertaken by Mayo and others in the late 1920's.

1.1421 The studies began as a series of experiments to determine the relationships between work environment and productivity.[2]

1.14211 The experimenters tried, for example, to discover the connection between intensity of

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[1]Elton Mayo, The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization 2d.ed. (Boston: Harvard University Graduate School of Business Administration, 1946), pp. 124-125.

[2]William G. Scott, Human Relations in Management: A Behavioral Science Approach (Homewood, Ill.: Irwin, 1962), p. 36.

lighting in the work place and the worker's output. Would the worker produce more as the intensity of the lighting was increased? It was thought that he would.

1.14212 As the experiments progressed, the results were disconcerting. The workers were not behaving as expected.

1.1422 Eventually the results of the Hawthorne experiments led the researchers to conclude that psychological and sociological factors were of great significance in the work environment and had considerable effect on the worker's productivity.

1.1423 The Hawthorne experiments provided research evidence that the worker is a complex individual and his feelings of being a team member and a participant are stronger motivating forces than economic incentives or the physical characteristics of the work place.

1.1424 The Hawthorne studies exposed many management misconceptions. They showed that "people in the company want to participate and to be recognized. They are not rabble, but individuals with psychological drives and social yearnings."[1]

1.1425 Research showed that informal relationships exist among workers on the job, and that these relationships have important consequences for the organization.

1.1426 The Hawthorne studies were of great significance for management. They opened a new area of management study, one which would require knowledge and expertise from the behavioral sciences. To increase productivity, management would have to learn much more about human motivations and group interaction on the job.

1.143 The growth of American unionism.

1.1431 Membership in labor organizations began a significant period of growth in the 1930's, particularly after passage of the National Labor Relations Act (Wagner Act) in 1935.

1.14311 Wagner Act legalized and safeguarded right of workers to join labor unions for purpose of collective bargaining.

1.14312 It also placed obligation upon industrial management to bargain with union representatives and to reach mutually satisfactory agreements.

1.14313 These new rights and obligations brought special problems of readjustment to both management and labor.

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[1] Ibid.

1.1432 Thousands of collective bargaining agreements were negotiated for the first time between representatives of unions and management in the late 1930's.

1.1433 In ten years, union membership increased from three million to fifteen million.

1.1434 It became increasingly clear that to maintain industrial peace, managerial policies and decisions must be the result of broad consultation and understanding rather than unilateral decision.[1]

1.1435 Today, labor unions have become an established and widely accepted force in American industry, and they are beginning to make themselves heard in the public sector as well.[2]

1.144 The growth of American education.

1.1441 People in America are getting far more education than ever before. More and more workers are coming to the labor market with higher levels of education.

1.1442 One of the major goals of education is to encourage people to think about things, to question, to reason, and to make better decisions.

1.1443 College graduates like to think they can do things for themselves, think for themselves, and make their own decisions. Generally they do not like to be told what to do.

1.1444 This great increase in education has tended to invalidate the old management concept that the supervisor knows more about jobs than workers and therefore should tell workers how to do their jobs.

1.1445 In highly specialized fields -- engineering, chemistry, physics, computer science -- the worker is likely to know more about a particular problem than the supervisor. Often no one individual can solve a problem; its solution may depend on a team of specialists.

1.1446 Today the supervisor often does not have adequate knowledge to make the best decision. He needs to draw on the knowledge of many people, and therefore must know how to create a climate conducive to cooperative effort and group decision making.

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[1]National Planning Association, Committee on the Causes of Industrial Peace Under Collective Bargaining, Fundamentals of Labor Peace; a Final Report (Washington, D.C.: National Planning Association, 1953), pp. 2-7.

[2]For a more detailed discussion of management-union relationships and a bibliography on library management and labor unions, see Enrichment Module 2.

Unit 1, Section 1

1.145 Social changes.

1.1451 As American society has evolved in the 20th century, more people have become involved in such institutions as schools, churches, and unions -- institutions in which they can become active participants and decision makers.

1.1452 There has been a trend toward greater individual freedom and initiative. People are ordered or forced to do things much less than formerly.

1.1453 Increasingly, the American people feel they have a right to participate in the decisions that affect their lives, as evidenced, for example, by the civil rights movement, community action groups formed to control neighborhood schools, or local ecology groups organized to stop pollution of the environment.

1.1454 People wish to participate in decision making on the job, as well as in the nation and the community.

1.1455 "What is currently happening is nothing less than a minor social revolution -- an industrial parallel to the 19th century struggle for universal suffrage."

1.1456 Whether administrators accept the new view and lead in efforts to share power with workers, or whether they will fight to safeguard their historic position by appeal to "managerial prerogatives" will determine the ease or bitterness with which the issue will be resolved.[1]

1.146 Economic and technological changes.

1.1461 In industry, modern techniques and lower labor costs have enabled foreign industry to enter into stiff competition with U.S. in some areas.

1.14611 The success of Volkswagen, for instance, has forced U.S. automotive industry to produce smaller cars in an attempt to recapture the market.

1.14612 To offset disadvantage of high labor costs, U.S. industry must optimize worker and management productivity.

1.1462 In service organizations, such as libraries and schools, there is great competition among many agencies (housing, transportation, sanitation, police, etc.) for limited funds, and many, including libraries, are receiving fewer dollars while

[1]Clarence C. Walton, Ethos and the Executive: Values in Managerial Decision Making (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1969), pp. 179-181.

simultaneously they are being asked for more extensive service.

1.147 Ethical implications in a changing era.

1.1471 Management thought today is based on two conflicting ethical systems: the individualistic ethic, which emphasizes the values of personal freedom and preeminence of individual action; and the social ethic, which emphasizes the collective well-being of society, the values of harmony and solidarity in intergroup relationships.[1]

1.1472 Traditionally Americans have stressed the individualistic ethic, the self-reliant pioneering spirit of the founding fathers.

1.1473 In the 1970's, however, we can no longer claim to be self-reliant individuals, but must depend on one another in almost every aspect of our lives. Interdependence requires a social philosophy of collaboration and concern for all citizens.

1.1474 The old competitive values of rugged individualism, so long a cornerstone of American tradition, no longer seem adequate.

1.1475 Changing values have had an impact on management thought. Collaborative interpersonal and intergroup relations have become an important subject for management thinking and study today.

1.1476 A new concept of the professional manager has evolved. He must be knowledgeable in human relations; he must be an expert in "relationships."

1.148 The search for new and more effective ways to manage has led to a "human relations" approach to management. Human relations today has many connotations, some of them controversial. It is important to define the term clearly.

1.1481 Human relations "is the application of the concepts and research methods of the behavioral sciences to the analysis and understanding of organizational and administrative behavior."[2]

1.1482 It draws its major concepts from sociology, social anthropology, psychology, and social psychology. Human relations is an interdisciplinary approach to management.

1.1483 Human relations refers to the process of applying the

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[1]William G. Scott, Organization Theory: A Behavioral Analysis for Management (Homewood, Ill.: Irwin, 1967), pp. 44-47.

[2]David G. Moore, "Human Relations in Organizations," in Sidney Mailick and Edward H. Van Ness, eds., Concepts and Issues in Administrative Behavior (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1962), p. 187.

methodology and findings of the behavioral sciences to promote collaboration and social solidarity within the social system of the organization.[1]

1.1484 The concept of "system" is an important one in human relations. The organization is viewed as a social system, a complex of mutually interdependent and variable factors.

1.14841 Human behavior, whether at the individual or group level, is seen within an interacting framework in which each part influences every other part in a dynamic way.

1.14842 "If we view an organization as an interacting system, our insights in general become deeper and sounder...We see the interconnection of events and thus the reasons for various patterns of behavior as they emerge out of the processes of change and adjustment..."[2]

1.1485 Management must strive to maintain a balance of objectives among the elements of the system.

1.14851 In a small group, the attitudes, activities and personal interactions of the group members must be compatible, or at least not in conflict, if balance is to be achieved.

1.14852 In a large group, or the total organization, management must strive to maintain balance among four elements of the system:

1.148521 The individuals in the organization.

1.148522 The jobs being performed.

1.148523 The informal organizations (friendship groups or cliques).

1.148524 The formal organization (the overall structure of the organization which relates the specific jobs, departments and divisions to one another).

1.148525 Balance is a condition in an organization in which there is accord among the objectives of the individuals, the jobs, the informal organizations, and the formal organization.

1.1486 Management must consciously seek to foster collaboration when it does not exist spontaneously. Collaboration refers to a cooperative effort on the part of people who have joined together in pursuit of common goals or objectives.[3]

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[1]Scott, 1962, op. cit., pp. 6-7.

[2]Moore, op. cit., p. 188.

[3]Scott, 1962, op. cit., p. 7.

1.1487 Management must seek social solidarity within the system, a harmony of purpose in human relationships. People engaged in a common undertaking should have purpose, continuity, and stability in their association. Management should interpret social solidarity as involving:

1.14871 Human interaction, both in the performance of jobs and in personal relations which are not always job oriented.

1.14872 Communication - both formal and grapevine.

1.14873 Personal objectives of individual employees, which are not always consistent with organizational goals.

1.14874 Job roles, which must yield employee satisfaction and have the capacity to expand in accordance with the individual's ability.

1.1488 Management today must be concerned with individual employee goals as well as organizational goals.

1.14881 The administrator must be a skillful planner, organizer, and controller in order to accomplish organizational goals.

1.14882 He must also be a motivator, a student of social organization, an expert in understanding a great variety of technical and human relationships including communication, informal organization, status, social and psychological needs, social roles and personality - in order to help individual employees accomplish their goals within the context of the organization.

1.15 To examine the effect of unions on employees and management.[1]

1.151 Unions and the employee.

1.1511 The union serves as a protective device for the worker against exploitation.

1.1512 Workers feel they can fight back through the union to protect their rights.

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[1]For a more detailed discussion of management-union relationships and a bibliography on library management and labor unions, see Enrichment Module 2.

1.1513 The union is a means for meeting power with power.
1.1514 It is a means to build a better world for the worker.
1.1515 The union leader is looked upon as concerned with the interests of the workers.
1.1516 The union will take up grievances of workers.
1.1517 The right of the foreman or supervisor to fire without hesitation is gone. Union shops have contractual agreements, and the foreman can no longer fire at his discretion. There must be reasons and procedures.

1.152 What problems do unions pose for supervisors?

1.153 Does the worker feel equal allegiance to the organization and the union?

1 OBJECTIVES

UNIT 1
SECTION 2

1.2 The Objectives of Management.

1.21 To examine the objectives of management.

1.22 To examine top management's expectations of its managers and supervisors.

1.23 To examine how supervisors respond to management's expectations.

1.24 To examine some management assumptions about human nature and how these assumptions affect managerial strategy.

Unit 1: Section 2

Evolution of Modern Management

1.2 The Objectives of Management

1.21 To examine the objectives of management.

1.211 Profit is management's main objective in industry, but in service-oriented, non-profit organizations like libraries management's economic objective is to see that adequate funds are secured and spent effectively in accordance with the overall mission of the organization.

1.212 Good service is another objective of management. The organization must provide valuable service to the portion of society it is designed to serve.

1.213 Management must be concerned with the organization's social value and its continued effective existence.

1.214 The employees within the organization must have opportunities for growth and development (a newer philosophical concept in management thinking).

1.2141 At an international management conference in 1954, representatives from many countries agreed that employee satisfaction on the job was an important objective of management.[1]

1.2142 John Gardner has stated this objective clearly and forcefully: "Every institution must, of course, have its own purposes and preoccupations, but over and above everything else that it does, it should be prepared to answer this question posed by society: 'What is this institution doing to foster the development of the individuals within it?' "[2]

1.2143 Likert also gives this objective preeminence: "Of all the tasks of management, managing the human

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[1]Earl G. Planty, ed. "Management Methods of Improving Human Relations," Personnel, 30:508-16, May, 1954.

[2]John W. Gardner, Excellence: Can We Be Equal and Excellent Too? (New York: Harper & Row, 1961), p. 142.

component is the central and most important task, because all else depends on how well it is done."[1]

1.215 Management must strive to accomplish the above objectives economically and efficiently.

1.22 To examine top management's expectations of its managers and supervisors.

1.221 Management functions which give leadership direction are a convenient way of describing many of the activities managers and supervisors are expected to perform; but isolating functions for discussion can also be misleading, because in fact management functions are inseparable and interdependent. Successful performance of one requires successful performance of the others.

1.2211 To plan: determining goals, policies, courses of action, what should be done, how and when, what is the best way to do it, why is it preferable to other alternatives.

1.22111 Planning provides guidelines for future action or inaction. It provides a framework for decision making and can be a vehicle for purposive coordinated change or a rationale for the status quo.

1.22112 Management must plan for the process of change, not just for specific changes. "We can either bring our desired future into existence by predetermining it, or yield to destiny by reacting and adjusting to environmental chance happenings... For the first time in history, our nation has the human talent with the knowledge, abilities and skills, and the experience to develop organizations to achieve desired economic and social goals."[2]

1.2212 To organize: coordinating individuals, committees, divisions, departments: seeing that people and resources are effectively combined so that all contribute maximally to furthering the objectives of the organization.

1.2213 To direct: motivating, communicating, providing leadership so that people will work effectively and efficiently.

1.2214 To control: seeing that tasks are accomplished and objectives met according to plan, seeing that the policies and directives of top management are carried out.

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[1]Rensis Likert, The Human Organization: Its Management and Value (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967), p. 1.

[2]John F. Mee, "Profiles of the Future: Speculation about Human Organization in the 21st Century," Business Horizons, 14:14, February, 1971.

1.22141 "...few things have been more baffling to managers than the results of some of their attempts to develop workable performance measures and controls, thus channeling the energies of their employees toward the firm's objectives ...On the one hand they find what seems to be apathy and indifference; yet on the other hand, they keep discovering remarkably ingenious methods developed by their subordinates for beating the system."[1]

1.22142 Management's efforts to control sometimes lead to unexpected and unintended results. Consider, for example, the library employee who is unresponsive to a user's particular needs because of his own desire to follow carefully the library's rules and regulations.

1.22143 Traditionally control in organizations has come from the top, but more recently management has recognized the importance of informal group control and self-control. If these controls are working at cross purposes, each is likely to be less than optimally effective. If all three are working in the same direction, the total amount of control is considerable.[2]

1.22144 Control "is usually highest when it is least apparent. Do we have more control in our communities now that there is so much talk about 'law and order'...? Vigorous apparent efforts to achieve control often signal a deterioration or a lack of it."[3]

1.2215 To provide opportunities for subordinates to grow and develop: creating the proper conditions for growth so that the individual can grow into the person he is capable of becoming.

1.22151 It has been found that unless the manager is made truly accountable for creating a climate conducive to the growth of his subordinates, he will give little attention to this activity.

1.22152 Management literature often uses the phrase, "to develop subordinates," but the phrase is inaccurate, for "in the last analysis, the individual must develop himself, and he will do so optimally only in terms of what he sees as

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[1]Gene W. Dalton and Paul R. Lawrence, eds. Motivation and Control in Organizations (Homewood, Ill.: Irwin and Dorsey, 1971), p. 1.

[2]Ibid., pp. 8-14.

[3]Ibid., p. 16.

meaningful and valuable." Management must create a climate conducive to growth and development; subordinates must be encouraged to develop themselves. [1]

1.22153 "Nothing is more vital to the renewal of an organization (or society) than the system by which able people are nurtured and moved into positions where they can make their contribution. In an organization this implies effective recruitment and a concern for the growth of the individual that extends from the earliest training stages through the later phases of executive development."[2]

1.222 In carrying out the above functions, supervisors and managers are expected to assume responsibility, be loyal to the organization, think creatively, and help solve organizational problems.

1.23 To examine how supervisors respond to management's expectations.

1.231 The first-line supervisor (who differs from higher levels of management in that he does not supervise other managers) has many problems. He is expected to carry out policy, but he is rarely asked to help make policy.[3]

1.2311 First-line supervisors view their lack of voice in policy decisions as one of the main factors reducing their effectiveness and lowering their morale.

1.2312 This has often been a blind spot in management practice, for the first-line supervisor is in a strategic position to express opinions important to policy formulation.

1.232 He may be told by higher supervisors what he can or cannot do, or how he should do something.

1.2321 Because of his singular role in the organizational hierarchy, the first-line supervisor has been termed a "marginal man." He seems to be on the periphery of the main stream of events in the organization. He is often bypassed.

1.2322 He is told he is part of management, but he does not really feel accepted as such by others in the organization, for he is always subject to being told what he can and cannot do.

1.233 He is expected to be a leader, but is limited by organizational

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[1] Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960), pp. 191-192.

[2] John W. Gardner, Self-Renewal: The Individual and the Innovative Society (New York: Harper & Row, 1964), p. 76.

[3] Much of the material in Section 1.23 is based on Scott, 1962, op. cit., pp. 294-321.

policies and rules.

1.2331 To determine the leadership characteristics of an effective supervisor, a study was made of first-line supervisors, their subordinates, and higher management. All three groups agreed that important characteristics were: ability to develop subordinates, practice of tact and discretion, ability to plan, "proper" behavior, and willingness to assume responsibility.

1.2332 Higher management added to this list ability to think for oneself, attention to detail, and adherence to organizational policy.

1.2333 The first-line supervisors themselves added ability to communicate, concern for worker welfare, ability to distinguish between important and unimportant work, and concern for safety.

1.2334 The subordinates added communication with them, willingness to support them, respectful treatment, and not showing favoritism.

1.234 The supervisor is expected to motivate workers.

1.2341 As a motivator he must perform a variety of activities, ranging from stimulating employees to accomplish objectives to the specifics of on-the-job training and settling grievances. Thus it would seem that beyond all else the first-line supervisor should be an expert in human relations.

1.2342 However, his boss often judges him ostensibly on his human relations abilities , but more important is the amount of work his department accomplishes. The supervisor may be "accused of poor human relations if people are happy but the job does not get done. And he is accused of poor human relations if an individual or two in his group is unhappy, but the job does get done."[1]

1.235 He is expected to conform to standards which he has no part in developing.

1.2351 The function of control involves the supervisor in seemingly endless detail, and much of his time is spent filling out records and reports which will measure his department's effectiveness against performance standards set by higher levels of management.

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[1]Ibid., p. 317

1.2352 Functional staff groups in the area of manpower, quality, and long-range planning require the supervisor to relay quantitative data on performance to them as well.

1.2353 The supervisor must act as a policeman in seeing that standards are met, but he has very little if anything to say about setting the standards.

1.236 He must respond to demands imposed on him from above and to expectations from his workers.

1.2361 He has more face-to-face contact with lower ranking employees than other levels of management, but often does not receive a sympathetic hearing from higher management on employee problems.

1.2362 Higher management expects him to have human relations skills in working with subordinates, but also expects him to police organizational policy and see that workers perform their jobs.

1.2363 His employees expect him to sympathize with their problems and stand up for their rights.

1.2364 This situation creates a leadership dilemma -- a dilemma of role conflict. It is a problem not to overidentify with either group, and the supervisor often responds by compromise with both groups.

1.23641 Those who insist on the supervisor's unequivocal identification with management fail to realize what a paradoxical situation such insistence creates.

1.23642 The supervisor is asked to identify with a group which appears to have a different outlook on life from his own. He is asked to go against the nature of his role as intermediary between two diverse groups.

1.23643 Often the response to role conflict is compromise.

1.23644 It should be noted that role conflict for higher levels of management,as well as for the first-line supervisor, is inescapable, for there is no way that one can harmonize perfectly all the pressures from within and from without.

1.23645 Further, the magnitude of role conflict is likely to increase, for the environment of the modern manager is becoming more dynamic and turbulent.[1]

[1]Douglas McGregor, The Professional Manager (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967), p. 55.

1.237 The supervisor often feels management does not maintain good communications with him.

1.2371 Supervisors tend to feel that their effectiveness and morale are undermined by poor communication from above. Communication pertaining to policy matters is often weakest at the supervisory level.

1.2372 The supervisor ought to be fully apprised of policies that directly affect his job, and he must see the significance of the policy he has to enforce in relation to the overall objectives of the organization.

1.2373 Failure of the supervisor's immediate superior to keep him apprised of his job performance is another communication lack supervisors often cite. They sometimes feel they get little praise for things well done, and that they don't hear soon enough about their weak points.[1]

1.238 The supervisor's job responsibility is often seen one way by him and another way by his superior.

1.2381 In studies, considerable disagreement has been found between what the supervisor thinks his job responsibility is, and what his boss thinks it is.

1.2382 The real issue often seems to be not so much what the supervisor is supposed to do, but how much authority he possesses in carrying it out.

1.239 Managers at all levels are faced with role conflict and the pressures of new knowledge. Finding a way to correctly assess one's abilities, cope with tension, confront and grow from conflict is a genuine and major challenge.[2]

1.24 To examine some management assumptions about human nature and how these assumptions affect managerial strategy.

1.241 Most people are generally untrustworthy, irresponsible, out to make more money and motivated by that goal alone. They are incapable of self-discipline and must be organized and controlled on the job by management. This set of assumptions has been referred to as rational-economic man.[3] It was the basis

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[1]Scott, 1962, op. cit., p. 309.

[2]McGregor, 1967, op. cit., p. 55.

[3]Much of the material in Section 1.24 is based on Edgar H. Schein, Organizational Psychology (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1965), pp. 47-65; and Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960), pp. 33-57.

of Adam Smith's economic doctrines in the 18th century and of Taylor's scientific management in the 20th century.

1.2411 Man is primarily motivated by economic incentives and will do whatever results in the greatest economic gain for him. He is essentially a passive agent who can be manipulated, motivated, and controlled by the organization through its system of rewards and punishments.

1.2412 Man's feelings are considered irrational and unpredictable, and they must not be allowed to interfere with his work.

1.2413 McGregor describes the same assumptions slightly differently in his Theory X. The average worker is lazy, will do as little as possible, lacks ambition, and wants security above all else. He dislikes responsibility, prefers to be led, resists change, is interested only in himself and does not care about the goals of the organization.

1.2414 These assumptions are based on an elitist theory of human nature, what McGregor calls the "mediocrity of the masses."[1] Most people are mediocre and must be controlled by the more broadly motivated moral elite.

1.242 The effect of rational-economic man assumptions on management.

1.2421 Management alone is responsible for organizational performance. Employees are merely expected to respond in prescribed ways to the incentive and control systems management establishes.

1.2422 Workers must not be allowed leeway to make choices on the job. Their work must be carefully prescribed by management.

1.2423 Management's main emphasis is the work people do. Their feelings and morale are not considered important.

1.2424 If work is substandard or morale is low, management will try to improve it by experimenting with the structure of the organization; it will re-examine the organization's incentive plans and control structure. Does the system identify and punish adequately the man who shirks on the job? Are supervisors putting enough pressure on the workers?

1.2425 Management must control man's tendency to avoid work. Workers will continually demand more money, and only threat of punishment will make them work toward achievement of organizational goals.

1.2426 These assumptions tend to be self-fulfilling. If employees

[1] McGregor, 1960, op. cit., p. 34.

are expected to be indifferent and hostile, motivated to work only by economic incentives, and fear of punishment, they are very likely to feel this way and behave accordingly.

1.243 Most men have not been able to find meaning in their work since the Industrial Revolution, and they must seek it instead in social relationships on the job. Man is primarily motivated by his social needs, and his basic sense of identity stems from his relationship with others. This set of assumptions has been referred to as social man.

1.2431 Man is more responsive to the social forces of informal groups than to the incentives and controls of management. If management creates a situation in which workers feel frustrated, threatened or alienated, they will form into groups whose purposes run counter to the goals of management.

1.2432 Workers are responsive to management when supervisors meet their social and psychological needs.

1.2433 The social man assumptions developed as the behavioral sciences became important in management thinking. Studies such as the Hawthorne experiments showed that man's motives, needs, and expectations were more complex than previously assumed.

1.244 The effect of social man assumptions on management.

1.2441 The manager must take into consideration the social and psychological needs of the people working for him. Concern for only the quality and amount of work is not enough.

1.2442 The manager must act as an intermediary between his workers and higher management, listening and attempting to understand workers and conveying their needs to higher management.

1.2443 Unless management can meet the social and psychological needs of the workers, they will become alienated from the formal organization and will commit their efforts to the informal organization.

1.2444 Management must devise a variety of group incentives and not rely solely on individual economic incentives.

1.2445 The manager becomes more of a facilitator and sympathetic supporter instead of the person who hands out work, gives orders, and controls.

1.245 People have a basic need to use their capacities and skills in mature and constructive ways. Man's motives are complex and based on a hierarchy of needs: simple needs for survival and safety, social and affiliative needs, self-esteem needs, autonomy and independence needs, and self-actualization needs in the sense of maximum use of all his resources. As lower-level needs are satisfied, man seeks to satisfy higher-level needs. This set of assumptions has been referred to as self-actualizing man.

1.2451 Employees seek to be mature on the job. The worker can exercise a certain amount of autonomy and independence and develop his capabilities and skills.

1.2452 Workers need opportunities to be innovative and creative on the job.

1.2453 Man is primarily self-motivated and self-controlled; externally imposed incentives and controls are likely to have negative effects on his performance. "We all know instances where an individual was regulating his own behavior toward a certain end, but when required by an external set of controls to work toward that goal, perhaps in a different way, came to feel less personal concern about meeting the total objective. His energies have been diverted into coping with the organizational controls in an effort to regain control over his own activities."[1]

1.2454 If given a chance, man will voluntarily integrate his own goals with those of the organization.

1.2455 McGregor's Theory Y expresses this set of assumptions slightly differently. The average man does not inherently dislike work, for work is as natural as play or rest. He learns to accept and seek responsibility, and will exercise self-contol and self-direction working toward objectives to which he is committed. Imagination, creativity, and ingenuity are widely distributed among people, and under the conditions of modern life, the intellectual potentialities of the average person are only partially utilized.

1.246 The effect of self-actualizing man assumptions on management.

1.2461 The manager worries less about being nice to employees and more about how to make their work challenging and meaningful.

1.2462 The issue is not whether the employee can fulfill his social

[1]Dalton and Lawrence, op. cit., p. 16.

needs on the job, but whether he can find meaning in his work which gives him a sense of self-esteem.

1.2463 The manager may find himself more in the role of interviewer, attempting to find out what will challenge a particular worker.

1.2464 The manager must delegate authority to his subordinates in accordance with what he and they feel they can handle. He must give up some of his traditional prerogatives in the areas of decision making and control.

1.2465 The basis of motivation is no longer seen as extrinsic (coming from the organization), but as intrinsic (man is self-motivated). Management must try to create a climate in which the individual can activate his already existing motivation and direct it toward the achievement of both his own goals and those of the organization.

1.2466 Management must create "an environment which will encourage commitment to organizational objectives and which will provide opportunities for the maximum exercise of initiative, ingenuity, and self-direction in achieving them."[1]

1.247 Continued research has shown that the individual is vastly more complex than the oversimplified concepts of rational-economic, social, or self-actualizing man. "It has always been difficult to generalize about man, and it is becoming more difficult as society and organizations within society are themselves becoming more complex and differentiated."[2]

1.2471 Man is not only complex, but highly variable. He has many motives, which are arranged in some sort of hierarchy of importance to him, but this hierarchy is subject to change.

1.2472 Man is capable of learning new motives through his organizational experiences. The work situation provides a unique path for personal growth.

1.2473 The nature of the work to be done, the abilities and experience of the person on the job, and the nature of the other people in the organization -- all interact to produce a certain pattern of work and feelings.

1.2474 Man responds to many different kinds of managerial strategies, depending on his own motives, abilities, and the nature of the

[1]McGregor, 1960, op. cit., p. 132.

[2]Schein, op. cit., p. 60.

work. There is no one correct managerial strategy applicable for all men at all times.

1.248 The effect of complex man assumptions on management.

1.2481 The successful manager must be a keen observer and must welcome a spirit of inquiry. He must be sensitive to the variability of worker's motives, abilities, and needs.

1.2482 The manager must value the existence of individual differences, and must have the personal flexibility and the range of skills necessary to vary his own behavior. He must be prepared to accept a variety of interpersonal relationships and patterns of authority.

1.2483 The manager must be willing to act in accordance with the demands of each particular situation. He may be highly directive at one time with one employee and highly non-directive at another time with another employee.

1.2484 Intelligent management action is impossible without skillful situational analysis. Each problem must be approached in terms of its particular circumstances. The manager must consider his own behavior and motives as well as those of the workers.

1.2485 The manager must try to learn the hopes and aspirations of each individual worker, and then address himself specifically to that individual.

1.2486 The manager's authority is still largely based on the position he occupies, but he does not use it simply on a man-to-man basis. Rather, he uses authority to specify for the group what its objectives should be, or he works to help the group specify its own objectives. He leaves the group leeway about how to accomplish the objectives.

1.2487 In the past, the typical managerial view of emotion has been too limited. Emotion includes loyalty, enthusiasm, drive, commitment, acceptance of responsibility, and self-confidence. Motivation is an emotional force, and evidence is growing that intellectual creativity also involves emotional factors.

1.24871 Man is an inseparable mixture of rational and emotional components and he cannot act in completely rational ways like a machine.

1.24872 Many times it appears that management is glad to have certain emotions expressed -- loyalty to the organization, enthusiasm and commitment to work--

but would like to suppress other emotions, such as antagonism, hostility, resistance, defiance, etc.

1.2488 Management must see that the employee receives opportunities to fulfill some of his important emotional and social needs through participation in the organization, for then the organization can expect a greater degree of loyalty and commitment to its goals.

1

BIBLIOGRAPHY
UNIT 1

Bibliography

Unit 1

Argyris, Chris. Integrating the Individual and the Organization. New York: Wiley, 1964.

Argyris presents a theoretical framework for redesigning organizations so they will take into account more fully the energies and competencies that human beings have to offer. He believes both the individual and the organization must "give a little" in order to profit from each other, and in answering the question how much each should give, he constructs his now well-known mix model in which he attempts to illustrate the kinds of characteristics an organization must have if the individual is to have opportunity for growth and development. The first four chapters present a revised view of his earlier work, Personality and Organization.

_____. Personality and Organization: The Conflict Between System and the Individual. New York: Harper, 1957.

After summarizing the nature of the individual and his personality, Argyris finds that there is a severe lack of congruency between the needs of healthy individuals and the demands of formal organization, and sees this as one of the most serious problems in our society today. All the tragic essentials of the individual's relation to organization are fully recognized. Using this situation as a starting point, he develops a coherent framework, or fusion process, between the individual's need system and formal organization. This work is a landmark for three reasons.

1. Presents a thorough research of the recent literature up to the time published.
2. Trys to synthesize into one model what was before two separate models: (a) self esteem (personality of the individual); (b) the organizational system.

The author gives us conceptual tools for analyzing and establishing fusion between two groups.

3. Analyzes the problem of relationship between the individual and the organization.

Babbage, Charles. On the Economy of Machinery and Manufactures. 3d ed. London: C. Knight, 1833.

Some early 19th century thinking on the problems of management thought and work motivation.

Bakke, E. Wight. "Concept of the Social Organization," in Mason Haire, ed., Modern Organization Theory; A Symposium. New York: Wiley, 1969.

Bakke attempts to define the concept of a social organization after specifying rigorous criteria for testing the usefulness and adequacy of such a concept. He is particularly interested in the processes which hold individual and organization together, barriers to effectiveness, and factors which destroy the organization. His definition is theoretical and complicated, subject to criticism from those seeking simplicity, but as Bakke himself states, "I am not nearly so impressed by the impracticality involved in the magnitude and complexity as by that inherent in oversimplification."

_____, and Chris Argyris. Organizational Structure and Dynamics; A Framework for Theory. New Haven: Labor and Management Center, Yale University, 1954.

The original source describing the fusion process developed by Argyris and Bakke, which attempts to integrate the needs of the individual with those of the organization.

Barnard, Chester I. The Functions of the Executive. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1938.

Discusses management as a process of cooperative endeavor. Focuses on the problems of managing people to obtain results as opposed to managing organizational process as proposed by Davis.

Bennis, Warren G."The Leader of the Future," Public Management, 52:13-19, March, 1970.

Bennis believes bureaucracy as we know it is coming to an end, and that new social systems will replace it, more suited to 20th century demands: adaptive, rapidly changing systems organized around specific problems to be solved by groups of people with a variety of skills. In this article, he develops a new concept of leadership appropriate to the "complex, ever-changing, free-form, kaleidoscopic" organization of the future. The leader of the future must be other-directed and comptetent in interpersonal skills. He

must actively produce conditions "where people and ideas and resources can be seeded, cultivated, and integrated to optimum effectiveness and growth."

Bennis, Warren G. "Revisionist Theory of Leadership," Harvard Business Review, 39:26ff. , January-February, 1961.

Bennis summarizes in admittedly oversimplified fashion the main differences between scientific management and early human relations management with respect to leadership and authority, and then goes on to discuss a newer approach which attempts to reconcile and integrate the two. He concludes with a quote from Leckie which rather well sums up his own point of view: "And whoever would think truly of authority must think reverently of freedom."

_____, Kenneth D. Benne, and Robert Chin, eds. The Planning of Change. 2d ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969.

A book of readings by a variety of well-known authorities focusing on planned change: "the application of systematic and appropriate knowledge in human affairs for the purpose of creating intelligent action and change." It covers such areas as theories of change and influence, change strategies, new kinds of training to facilitate planned change, resistance, and the ethical dilemmas confronting the change agent.

Cleland, David I. "Understanding Project Authority: Concept Changes Manager's Traditional Role," Business Horizons, 10:63-70, Spring, 1967.

The author sees the concept of authority in a period of transformation, changing from the bureaucratic hierarchical model to a participative and persuasive one. Participation and persuasion are relatively new phenomena in organizational life, and reflect the influence of the democratic and scientific revolution in contemporary society. This is an interesting article that discusses the meaning of power, authority, and influence in relation to the matrix organization, or as Cleland calls it, project management,which means that the organization takes its shape around specific tasks or projects rather than along the traditional pyramidal lines. The article includes a detailed comparison of functional and project viewpoints.

Dalton, Gene W., and Paul R. Lawrence, eds. Motivation and Control in Organizations. Homewood, Ill: Irwin and Dorsey, 1971.

A book of readings and case studies used at the Harvard Business School on the process by which goals are established and performance is measured and rewarded, with an interesting introductory chapter summarizing the major concepts involved in motivation and control in organizations.

Davis, R.C. Industrial Organization and Management. New York: Harper, 1940.

Presents the thinking of processes as the means of managing. Discusses management objectives and the various functions of management in running an organization.

Drucker, Peter F. "Fifty Years of Management -- A Look Back and a Look Forward," Journal of Engineering for Industry, 83:366-370, August, 1961. (Transactions of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, Series B.)

A discussion of the development of management in the 20th century with particular emphasis on the 1950's. Drucker points out with considerable enthusiasm that management has become a world-wide phenomenon of great importance to the human race. Deploring fragmentation of the discipline, he makes a plea for the development of a unified theory. "From now on management science and scientific management, managerial economics and human relations will have to be made one in the theory as well as in the practice of management."

Durkheim, Émile. The Division of Labor in Society. Trans. from the French by George Simpson. New York: Free Press, 1964. (original work published 1893.)

Gardner, John W. Excellence: Can We Be Equal and Excellent Too? New York: Harper & Row, 1961.

A thoughtful discussion of some of the confusion surrounding American values, in which Gardner emphasizes the importance of creating opportunities for continual individual growth. "The sad truth is that for many of us the learning process comes to an end very early indeed... Perhaps many men will always fall into ruts. Perhaps many will always let their talents to to waste. But the waste now exists on such a massive scale that sensible people cannot believe that it is all inevitable." Every institution in our society

should contribute to the fulfillment of the individual. Over and above whatever else it does, Gardner believes every institution should foster the development of the individuals within it.

Gardner, John W. Self-Renewal: The Individual and the Innovative Society. New York: Harper & Row, 1964.

This book has become a recent classic, which although not primarily written for a management audience, has much in it of value for them. Managers and personnel administrators are too often preoccupied with policies, procedures and rules which may stifle the creative and the innovative opportunities for self-renewal which an innovative society or organization requires. Gardner observes: "Someone has said that the last act of a dying organization is to get out a new and enlarged edition of the rule book." He warns against managerial techniques becoming the means of "processing" human beings. He firmly believes that the impact of the organization on the individual requires continued study and research. If the individual has a commitment to self-renewal, Gardner believes the organization can remove some the obstacles and even provide the opportunities, but the emphasis remains on the self. "The ultimate goal is to shift to the individual the burden of pursuing his own education." Further: "In a society capable of renewal, men not only welcome the future and the changes that it may bring, but believe that they will have a hand in shaping that future. Not all people are creative, but there are many kinds of creativity, and many more individuals could realize creative potential which would contribute to the success of an organization if the roadblocks were removed. In summary, if the educational system prepared the individual for an accelerating rate of change, and the business organization gives him opportunities to gain versatility and responsibility in a variety of jobs and assignment situations, that individual will not be dragged screaming into the future. He will welcome it."

Gellerman, Saul W. Motivation and Productivity. New York: American Management Association, 1963.

Gellerman effectively presents the leading motivation theories developed by behavioral scientists.

The Bureau of National Affairs, Inc. (5615 Fishers Lane, Rockville, Md.) has developed a series of five films bringing out some of the material in Gellerman's book. The introduction to the series is by Gellerman, and there are individual films on the

motivation theories of Herzberg, Argyris, Likert, McClelland and McGregor. BNA also has a series of six tape cassettes done by Gellerman and his business partner Emanuel Kay, which supplement and to some extent duplicate the material presented in the films.

Gilbreth, Lillian M. The Psychology of Management. New York: Macmillan, 1921.

Presents the thinking of one of the leading exponents of scientific management. It discloses a concern and a philosophy toward the worker, frequently ignored by the critics of scientific management.

Haire, Mason, ed. Modern Organization Theory: A Symposium. New York: Wiley, 1959.

The papers in this book contributed by a variety of well-known authorities on organization theory and behavior such as Bakke, Whyte, Argyris and Likert, discuss from different points of view such subjects as conflict between personality and organization, structure of organizations, decision theory, ecology of organizations, viability and forces tending to destroy organizations, and interdependence among the social sciences with respect to organization theory.

Herzberg, Frederick, Bernard Mausner, and Barbara Bloch Snyderman. The Motivation to Work. 2d. ed. New York: Wiley, 1959.

This book reports the findings from a study of job attitudes, and was the first presentation of Herzberg's motivation theory.

Joeckel, Carleton B., ed. Current Issues in Library Administration. Papers Presented Before the Library Institute at the University of Chicago, August 1-12, 1938. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939.

This work represents a major contribution to library management. It presents a series of papers delivered originally at a unique conference in which library administrators participated with leaders in management from related areas. The introduction by Joeckel makes five significant propositions which are as true today as when they were written.

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Kast, Fremont E. "Planning the Strategies in Complex Organizations," in Lanore A. Netzer and others, eds. Education, Administration, and Change: The Redeployment of Resources. New York: Harper and Row, 1970, pp. 103-134.

An excellent clearly-written article which first summarizes the evolution of organization theory and then elaborates on an integrative systems view of organization. Particularly good discussion of planning.

Koontz, Harold, and Cyril O'Donnell. Principles of Management. 4th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1968.

A textbook which summarizes the principles and techniques of the managerial functions of organizing, staffing, directing, planning, and controlling.

Leavitt, Harold J., ed. The Social Science of Organizations: Four Perspectives. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1963.

A collection of four papers resulting from the 1962 Seminar in the Social Science of Organization sponsored by the University of Pittsburgh Graduate School of Business: "Problems in the Development of a Social Science of Organization," by George B. Strother; "Some Notes on Power Equalization," by George Strauss; "The Rationality Model in Organizational Decision-Making," by Henry A. Latane; and "Some Considerations in the Methodology of Organizational Studies," by David Mechanic. The paper by Strauss is a critical discussion of participatory management in which he points out some of its weaknesses and suggests areas for further research.

Likert, Rensis. The Human Organization: Its Management and Value. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.

This book, based on studies conducted by the University of Michigan Institute for Social Research, of which Likert is director, is testimony of his conviction that today the art of management can be based on verifiable information derived from rigorous quantitative research. In discussing four systems of management (exploitive, authoritative, benevolent authoritative, consultative, and participative), he emphasizes the need for a systems approach to organizational change. Every aspect of a managerial system is related to every other part and interacts with it. To introduce

change, the most influential causal variables must be altered first, followed by consistent, coordinated change in the entire management system. Likewise, training to bring about cognitive, attitudinal and skill changes must be compatible with the system of management in which the new knowledge is to be used.

Likert, Rensis. "A Motivational Approach to a Modified Theory of Organization and Management," in Mason Haire, ed., Modern Organization Theory. New York: Wiley, 1959, pp. 184-217.

Based on substantial research findings, Likert presents a theory emphasizing the necessity of a high level of motivation throughout the organization and an efficient system to coordinate and focus the efforts of individuals, if the goals of the organization are to be achieved. He derives a form of organizational structure based on overlapping groups rather than the usual man-to-man pattern -- a more complex form of organization which demands more learning, understanding and practice than is now usually expected of workers, supervisors, and managers.

McGregor, Douglas. The Human Side of Enterprise. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960.

In this influential work, the author presents his Theory X and Theory Y. He discusses motivation in relation to a hierarchy of needs, explains why traditional rewards no longer motivate, conceives of the manager as a "grower" of people, and stresses the importance of organizational climate. Throughout, he emphasizes his firm conviction that every managerial act rests on theory.

_____. The Professional Manager. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.

McGregor discusses the importance of theory and assumptions about life, how these influence the way we see the world. He emphasizes that man is more than a rational being and must come to terms with his emotional and human side. Power and influence are discussed in terms of mutuality and transaction rather than as win-lose struggles. The final chapter deals with the dilemma posed by the necessity of managing diversity and incongruities as well as collaborative efforts and teamwork.

Unit 1, Bibliography

March, James G., and Herbert A. Simon. Organizations. New York: Wiley, 1958.

The authors survey the literature of organization theory, starting with theories that viewed the employee as a physiological automaton, proceeding through those concerned more with motivation and emotion, and concluding with theories placing more emphasis on cognitive processes. Their aim is (1) to eliminate one by one the artificialities of the classical description of the employee as an instrument; and (2) to replace this abstraction with a new one recognizing that individuals in organizations have wants, motives, drives, and are limited in their knowledge and problem-solving abilities. Chapter 2 presents a very good critique of scientific management. An important book on organization theory often quoted in management literature.

Maslow, Abraham H. Motivation and Personality. 2d ed. New York: Harper & Row, 1970.

The author is considered to be one of the major theoretical thinkers in the area of personality.

Chapter 4: A Theory of Motivation.

Chapter 5: The Role of Basic Need Gratification in Psychological Theory.

Mayo, Elton. The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization. 2d ed. Boston: Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1946.

First issued in 1933, this book describes the pioneering work done in the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company. It was the first real assault on the purely structural, hierarchical approach to organization. The experiments showed that people do not respond in predictable ways as physical and environmental incentives are applied. The work place is a social institution, and man's social and psychological needs have considerable effect on his work.

_____. The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization. Boston: Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1945.

In this report, published 12 years after his earlier one, Mayo's emphasis changes somewhat, "not to exclude the individual, but to stress the importance of groups and methods of understanding the

behavior of groups, whether formally organized and recognized by management or self-constituted, informal organizations." His tone differs, too, reflecting the cumulative impact of the depression and the second world war. This book contains further comments about the Hawthorne experiments and the importance of clinical research in the area of human behavior in industrial organizations.

Mee, John F. "Profiles of the Future: Speculation about Human Organizations in the 21st Century," Business Horizons, 14:5-7, 10-16, February, 1971.

This article takes us on a speculative trip into the future, where the author visualizes an organization with the nature and characteristics of a total systems concept, an order and array of interdependent subsystems.

Moore, David G. "Human Relations in Organization," in Sidney Mailick, and Edward H. Van Ness, eds. Concepts and Issues in Administrative Behavior. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1962, pp. 187-201.

A discussion of the human relations approach to management in which the author makes it clear that by human relations he does not mean the Golden Rule or a "happiness" school of employee relations, but rather the application of behavioral science concepts and methods to the analysis of organizational and administrative behavior. He concludes by presenting two organizational models which he terms (based on a modification of Riesman's concepts) inner-directed and outer-directed. The latter according to Moore results in more mature human relations and better results in terms of organizational aims.

Nash, Paul. Models of Man: Explorations in the Western Educational Tradition. New York: Wiley, 1968.

A presentation of some of the more influential views throughout history of what constitutes an educated man. Included among others are the views of Plato, Aristotle, Freud, Skinner, and Buber.

National Planning Association. Committee on the Causes of Industrial Peace Under Collective Bargaining. Fundamentals of Labor Peace; a Final Report. Washington, D. C.: National Planning Association, 1953.

The final volume of a series of 14 case studies based on detailed surveys of companies and unions experiencing successful and peaceful industrial relations.

Unit 1, Bibliography

Owen, Robert. The Life of Robert Owen, Written by Himself, with Selections from his Writings and Correspondence. New York: Augustus M. Kelley, 1967. 2 vols. (originally published 1857)

Planty, Earl G., ed. "Management Methods of Improving Human Relations: A Report of the 10th International Management Congress," Personnel, 30:507-516, May, 1954.

Leading personnel directors, general managers, psychologists and students of management from 13 countries prepared papers on human relations for the International Management Congress held in Brazil in 1954. Planty briefly summarizes all thirteen papers in this article. One example: the Canadian paper "stresses above all the necessity of reconsidering the worker as an individual, recognizing his essential rights and his human needs. It emphasizes also that the development of better human relations has now become an end in itself in industry."

Roethlisberger, Fritz J. "The Foreman: Master and Victim of Double Talk," Harvard Business Review, 23:283-298, Spring, 1945.

Commenting on the increasing receptiveness of foremen to unionization in the 1940's, the author says management's chickens have come home to roost, as the foreman's dissatisfaction is a result of management actions, "the result of our ignorance and of our failure to pay as much explicit attention to the social organization of teamwork as to the logical organization of operations in our modern industrial enterprises." Although this article was written nearly 30 years ago when times were very different, it is not difficult to see some parallels with the resurgence of unionism in the public sector and among the professions in the 1970's.

_____. Management and Morale. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1941.

Observations, concepts and an overall view of the author on management based on the Hawthorne studies. A volume that should be read by all students of management.

_____, and William J. Dickson. Management and the Worker. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1939.

Discussion of the findings of the famous Hawthorne studies, which led to management considerations of human relations problems. A classic for the field of management.

Schein, Edgar H. Organizational Psychology. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1965.

An unusually clear, jargon-free discussion of organizations, the problems of allocating and utilizing human resources, and the problems of survival, growth, and capacity to adapt to and manage change, this book is short, easy to read, and highly recommended for practicing managers. Schein emphasizes throughout the importance of the systems approach: "Organizational psychology as a field is intimately tied to the recognition that organizations are complex social systems, and that almost any questions one may raise about the determinants of behavior within organizations have to be viewed from the perspective of the entire social system."

Scott, William G. Human Relations in Management: A Behavioral Science Approach. Homewood, Ill.: Irwin, 1962.

An excellent overall treatment which emphasizes that the new directions in management thought demand treatment of human motivation and organizational behavior on higher conceptual levels than previously recognized. "This demand requires more extensive consideration of research and generalizations in the behavioral sciences plus more penetrating analysis of the ethical implications of administrative practice in the management of human relationships." Scott considers human relations a combination of practices, policies, scientific theories and philosophies necessary to solve "people problems" in organizations. In this work he successfully combines basic concepts from classical and neoclassical organization theory with emphasis on the modern concept that every organization should be viewed as a system of relationships.

_____. Organization Theory: A Behavioral Analysis for Management. Homewood, Ill.: Irwin, 1967.

Scott presents his thesis that since 1962 a new management movement has emerged with a distinct ideology. This he labels industrial humanism. He believes the main thrust of this movement has been to strengthen the sovereignty of organization participants with respect to the dominant hierarchy. "This means that other dimensions of satisfaction must be achieved in addition to the economic." He feels it is doubtful if these satisfactions will be meaningful outside a constitutional framework.

The subject is organization theory, which is presented in its historical setting, but the main thrust is a conceptual scheme following a systems model.

Unit 1, Bibliography

Simon, Herbert A. The New Science of Management Decision. New York: Harper, 1960.

Simon treats decision-making as synonymous with managing. The whole process of decision comprises, according to Simon, three principal phases: finding occasions for making a decision (search activity); finding possible courses of action (design activity); and choosing among courses of activity (choice activity). Also he classifies decisions into programmed and nonprogrammed. Decisions are programmed to the extent that they are repetitive and routine. Decisions are nonprogrammed to the extent that they are novel, unstructured and consequential. Each of these has a different technique to reach them. In the last section of the book he talks about the organizational design of the future and predicts that organization will continue to be hierarchical in form and will be constructed in three layers: an underlying system of physical production and distribution process; a layer of programmed (and probably largely automated) decision processes for governing the day-to-day operation of the physical system, and a layer of non-programmed decision processes (carried out in a man-machine system) for monitoring the first level processes, redesigning them, and changing parameter values. Simon comments on this organization of the future: "The automation and rationalization of decision making will, to be sure, alter the climate of organizations in ways important to these human concerns...On balance, they seem to be changes that will make it easier rather than harder for the executive's daily work to be a significant and satisfying part of his life."

Sinclair, Upton. The Jungle. New York: Viking, 1946.

A novel depicting the goals of an employer as one who used his workers for the purpose of making as much money out of them as he possibly could. (First published in 1906)

Smith, Adam. An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations. Copied from the 5th ed. New York: Modern Library, 1937.

A classical work in the field of economics. Reflects the philosophy of the author in relation to man as a worker and participant in the economic process.

Strauss, George. "Human Relations -- 1968 Style," Industrial Relations, 7:262-276, May, 1968.

A good discussion of the human relations approach to management which contrasts contemporary human relations with its predecessor of the 1940's and 1950's.

Tannenbaum, Robert, and Sheldon A. Davis. "Values, Man, and Organizations," in William B. Eddy, and others, eds. Behavioral Science and the Manager's Role. Washington, D.C.: NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, 1969, pp. 3-24.

Two behavioral scientists; Tannenbaum, an academician, and Davis, a manager; discuss the changing value system they see emerging in our society today, and its implications for management and organizations. As they see it, our values are in transition moving away from a view of man as essentially bad, untrustworthy, and unchanging, toward a view of man as essentially good, trustworthy, and constantly in process of change. "For those concerned with organizational theory and with organizational development work, this is an exciting and challenging time. Probably never before have the issues at the interface between changing organizations and maturing man been so apparent, so compelling, and of such potentially critical relevance to both."

Tannenbaum, Robert, Irving R. Weschler, and Fred Massarik. Leadership and Organization: A Behavioral Science Approach. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961.

A behavioral science approach to the problems of management. The book contains a particularly good chapter on human relations in which the authors devote considerable effort to sweeping away the confusion surrounding the term. In their view, human relations is an integrated behavioral science discipline.

Taylor, Frederick W. Scientific Management. New York: Harper, 1947.

A volume containing 3 of Taylor's works: Shop Management (1903); The Principles of Scientific Management (1911); and Taylor's Testimony Before the Special House Committee (1912). As the "Father of Scientific Management," Taylor's thinking and views are important to all serious students of management.

Unit 1, Bibliography

Towne, Henry R. "The Engineer as an Economist," Transactions of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, 7:428-432, May, 1886.

Towne calls attention to the importance of management in industry and urges that a science of management be developed. He suggests that managers from different companies should exchange information and share their experiences, and that ASME should take the lead in this exchange creating a special management division. Delivered in 1886, this speech has become a classic in the literature of American management.

Ure, Andrew. The Philosophy of Manufactures. London: Knight, 1835.

Some early 19th century thinking on the problems of management thought and worker motivation.

Walton, Clarence C. Ethos and the Executive: Values in Managerial Decision Making. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1969.

A thoughtful, philosophical exploration of the kinds of values involved in managerial decision making, those that are and those that ought to be.

Woodward, Joan. Industrial Organization: Theory and Practice. London: Oxford University Press, 1965.

Woodward reports here on a ten-year survey of the organizational structure of 100 firms, which was followed by a number of intensive case studies. The principal finding was that considerable variation exists in organizational structure and the same principles can produce quite different results in different cases. Woodward is particularly concerned with the problem of building a valid theory of management based on solid research, and she makes an eloquent plea for practicing managers and academics in the management field working more closely together.

2 UNIT 2
THE WORKER--HUMAN BEING/ PERSONALITY: A SYSTEMS PERSPECTIVE AND APPROACH

2 OVERALL OBJECTIVES

UNIT 2

2.1 To present and explore one model of human behavior, based on dynamic theory, in order to provide participants a deeper understanding of some of the factors underlying man's behavior.

2.2 To examine individually the key elements of the frustration-aggression model of human behavior.

2.3 To provide an awareness of some different theories of personality and their possible relevance to understanding employees in the work situation.

2 OBJECTIVES

UNIT 2
SECTION 1

2.1 To present and explore one model of human behavior, based on dynamic theory, in order to provide participants a deeper understanding of some of the factors underlying man's behavior.

2.11 To briefly examine human behavior in terms of its biological determinants.

2.12 To develop in brief form a frustration-aggression model of human behavior.

2.13 To consider both the usefulness and the limitations of this model as a conceptual tool.

Unit 2: Section 1

Model of Human Behavior

2.1 To explore one model of human behavior, based on dynamic theory, in order to provide participants a deeper understanding of some of the factors underlying man's behavior.

"When a human being goes to work for an organization, he brings with him all the characteristics of a whole man -- motivations and emotions, knowledge, and intellectual capabilities. Although placed in a different environment, he is the same man whom the individual psychologist has been studying in the laboratory. We should expect the same laws to govern his behavior."[1]

The primary purpose of this unit is to explore in the perspective of dynamic theory some of the laws that both govern man's behavior and account for his individual uniqueness.

The way an individual behaves and thinks, according to dynamic theory, is determined by his needs and drives, and how he manages consciously and unconsciously to satisfy them. Dynamic theory is based on the belief that an adequate understanding of an individual's behavior in any given situation requires understanding of the whole person. It differs, therefore, from other orientations of psychology such as behaviorism which focuses on observable behavior, gestalt psychology which is concerned with perception, or social psychology which deals with human social relationships.

2.11 To briefly examine human behavior in terms of its biological determinants.

2.111 Biologically, every organism has two necessities or purposes: individual survival and preservation of the

[1]Timothy W. Costello, and Sheldon S. Zalkind, Psychology in Administration: A Research Orientation (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1963), p. iii.

species. On these necessities are based man's most elemental physiological needs for air, food, water, sleep, shelter, sex, etc.

2.112 A corollary biological determinant is avoidance of pain. The physiological drives are aversive, they are states from which the organism tries to escape.[1]

2.113 Viewed physiologically, man is a homeostatic system; that is a self-stabilizing system. When a vital physiological condition changes significantly, certain bodily mechanisms are set in motion to help restore the system to its optimal level.[2] The human body, for example, maintains a constant temperature regardless of the temperature around it.

2.114 To understand human behavior it is essential to understand the central importance of biological needs and drives.

2.12 To develop in brief form a frustration-aggression model of human behavior.

2.121 Frustration refers to circumstances which interfere with or block goal-directed activity. It is an essential part of life as no person can ever have all his needs met. There is no such thing as a continuously completed gratified person.[3] Man's reactions to frustration are complex and highly individual.

2.1211 The most basic reaction is direct aggression against the frustrating object or person, accompanied by feelings of intense hostility.

2.12111 Aggressive behavior arouses anger in the person toward whom it is directed, and that person may in turn retaliate to punish the aggressor. Such action would be counter-aggression.

2.12112 Anticipating punishment or counter-aggression, the original aggressor will want to avoid it, and therefore, any behavior on

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[1]Ernest H. Hilgard, and Richard C. Atkinson, Introduction to Psychology, 4th ed. (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1967), p. 127.

[2]William N. Dember and James J. Jenkins, General Psychology: Modeling Behavior and Experience (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970), p. 606.

[3]Lewis R. Wolberg, and John P. Kildahl, The Dynamics of Personality (New York: Grune & Stratton, 1970), p. 285.

his part which is likely to bring punishment on himself he contemplates with feelings of anxiety.

2.12113 Anxiety is a distressing condition,and man does all he can to alleviate it for himself.

2.1212 Man's more mature reactions to frustration include a wide variety of problem-solving attempts to obtain mastery over his environment, forcing it to yield the satisfactions he desires.

2.1213 In his attempts to deal with frustration on a more mature level, man seeks adjustment by searching and experimenting on a trial and error basis.

2.1214 In most instances, there are many ways of meeting problem situations, and as a result human behavior is complex and unique in its development.

2.122 The frustration-aggression model of human behavior is based on the hypothesis that all behavior originates in response to needs within an individual. A man's personality, his ways of thinking and acting, depend on how he manages to adjust to frustrations and conflicts resulting from his needs and drives. Individual factors within this model are dealt with separately in the next sections of the outline. They are: adjustment, needs and drives, frustration, aggression, punishment, and anxiety.

2.13 To consider both the usefulness and the limitations of this model as a conceptual tool.

It must be stated at the outset, that this model of human behavior does not purport to give an entire picture of human personality. It is an abstraction and,as such,provides a framework for discussing certain important facets of human personality. It provides a less satisfactory framework for discussing other aspects of human behavior, such as creativity, innovation, or curiosity. In Unit IV, some of these other aspects of human behavior will be examined in detail.

2 OBJECTIVES

UNIT 2
SECTION 2

2.2 To examine individually the key elements of the frustration-aggression model of human behavior.

2.21 Adjustment

2.22 Needs and Drives

2.23 Frustration

2.24 Aggression

2.25 Punishment

2.26 Anxiety

Unit 2: Section 2

Key Elements of the Frustration-Aggression Model

2.2 To examine individually the key elements of the frustration-aggression model.

2.21 To describe and discuss adjustment as one of the factors involved in the dynamic theory model of human behavior.

"All behavior -- successful, unsuccessful, wise, foolish, flexible, rigid -- is an attempt by the organism to meet the demands facing it, or perceived as facing it. The requirements we try to meet may stem primarily from within (demands for food, rest, affection, self-esteem, achievement) or from without (demands for cooperation from others, obedience to law, adherence to expected role behavior). Depending upon the nature of the demand and our resources for coping with it, we may solve the problem easily and effectively or we may experience considerable strain..."[1]

2.211 Adjustment can be seen as a process of adaptation to the realities of life. It is the process by which an organism attempts to meet the demands imposed upon it by its own nature and by its physical and social environment.

2.2111 It is a continuous process. Living things never cease to adjust.

2.2112 Adjustive behavior may be more or less successful depending on how adequately it satisfies the inner needs of the organism.[2]

2.212 All human behavior can be viewed as an effort to adjust. Adjustment is the characteristic way in which a person perceives, relates to, and solves the main problems of his life.[3]

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[1]James C. Coleman, Psychology and Effective Behavior (Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman, 1969), p. 199.

[2]Ibid., p. 4.

[3]Percival M. Symonds, The Dynamics of Human Adjustment (New York: Appleton-Century, 1946), p. 6.

2.213 Adjustment is an involved, individual process. As each individual differs, so too the requirements of his adjustment differ.

2.2131 It is a continuous process of adapting to change, a developmental cumulative process. Adjustment in adult life is most often based on patterns established much earlier in life.

2.2132 The adjustment an individual achieves at any given time should be seen as the result of his cumulative experiences.

2.22 To describe and discuss needs and drives as one of the factors involved in the dynamic theory model of human behavior.

The nature of the various needs and drives and the relationships among them are subjects that psychologists have debated and theorized about for years in their attempts to understand human personality and motivation.[1] These subjects are of central importance in dynamic theory which is based on the hypothesis that all human behavior originates in response to needs and drives within the individual.

2.221 Needs and drives can generally be divided in two categories: those pertaining to biological maintenance of the individual, and those pertaining to his psychological well-being.

2.2211 Among our requirements for optimal biological maintenance are: air, food, water, sleep, stimulation and activity, safety and sexual expression.

2.2212 Among our requirements for psychological well-being and efficient functioning are: having some understanding about our world and seeing order and meaning in it; feeling adequate, competent and secure; experiencing love and affiliation; feeling that we have self-worth, a sense of direction and hope for success in our efforts.[2]

2.222 Drives are central to survival, and they are closely related to needs. They serve to arouse and activate behavior to satisfy a particular need.

2.2221 The relationship between needs and drives is

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[1]William N. Dember, and James J. Jenkins, General Psychology: Modeling Behavior and Experience (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970), p. 621-622.

[2]Coleman, op. cit., p. 173.

complicated. Not every need apparently gives rise to a drive. For instance, we need oxygen in order to survive, but this does not give rise to an oxygen drive. The struggle for air that normally occurs in oxygen deprivation seems to be a response to excess of carbon dioxide rather than to oxygen lack.[1]

2.2222 The strength of a drive is generally in proportion to the intensity of the need. There is evidence to indicate that if a strong need remains unsatisfied, other needs tend to remain unrecognized.

2.2223 Needs and drives tend to combine with one another so that in trying to explain a particular piece of behavior, one usually finds the motives highly complex and inter-related.

2.223 Needs and drives have been conceptualized in various ways by psychologists and other students of human behavior.

2.2231 Freud, for instance, described ego and libido needs, the former being needs for self preservation, and the latter, needs for species preservation.

2.2232 Murray conceptualized drives in terms of the viscerogenic and the psychogenic, the former being dependent on bodily needs, and the latter derivative drives of an emotional nature.

2.2233 Maslow conceptualized a hierarchy of needs, beginning with the most basic physiological needs. When these needs are satisfied, other needs appear and they, rather than the physiological needs, then dominate the organism. The basic human needs are organized in a "hierarchy of prepotency." Maslow described five levels of needs.[2]

2.22331 First are the elemental physiological needs. These are the most basic. If a man is hungry, for instance, he must find food. Until he finds food, the need for food will be of primary importance.

2.22332 When physiological needs are satisfied, the safety needs arise. Man must protect himself from outside dangers, from sickness, murder, tyranny, and so forth. In our culture, the healthy

[1]Dember, op. cit., p. 622.

[2]Abraham H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality, 2d.ed. (New York: Harper and Row, 1970), pp. 35-47.

and fortunate adult is generally satisfied in his safety needs most of the time.

2.22333 Next are the needs for love and a sense of belonging. We need to give and receive love, warmth, and affection in our relations with other people. These needs will arise as we are no longer preoccupied with physiological or safety needs.

2.22334 The fourth level, which arises as the previous levels are largely satisfied, is the need for self-esteem and esteem from others. Maslow divides esteem needs into two categories: needs for achievement, adequacy, mastery, and competence; and needs for reputation or prestige, status, importance and appreciation.

2.22335 At the fifth level are the needs for self-actualization, to become what one is capable of becoming. "What a man can be, he must be... The clear emergence of these needs usually rests upon some prior satisfaction of the physiological, safety, love, and esteem needs."[1]

2.23 To describe and discuss frustration as one of the factors involved in the dynamic theory model of human behavior.

As nearly everyone who has worked would agree, frustration on the job is a very familiar human experience. It is important that the administrator try to understand the kinds of behavior that result from frustration so he can minimize its negative influences for the individual and the organization. "No one should expect the administrator to be a psychiatrist, but an understanding of the ways in which people in his organization respond to their tensions will aid him and his employees."[2]

2.231 The sources of frustration are many and varied. Some frustration comes from the environment, some originates within ourselves.

2.2311 Environmental frustrations are innumerable and

[1]Maslow, op. cit., pp. 46-47.

[2]Timothy W. Costello, and Sheldon S. Zalkind, Psychology in Administration: A Research Orientation (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1963), pp. 125-127.

seemingly all-pervasive. Some are of major consequence such as war, famine or earthquakes. Others are not of a life-and-death nature, but they can be extremely annoying.

2.23111 Consider, for instance, a hot summer day in your library. The stacks are not air conditioned, and you are there searching for an important book which is desperately needed. No one on the library staff has been able to find it.

2.23112 Perhaps your library has the only copy in town, and the mayor's office has asked to borrow it.

2.23113 You can't find it.

2.2312 Inner sources of frustration are not usually so obvious, for they depend on how an individual interprets what happens both within and outside himself.

2.23121 Suppose a subordinate employee feels he has worked effectively and his good performance has not been adequately recognized.

2.23122 He has just summoned sufficient courage to come to you and ask for a raise, but he hears you reprimanding another employee in a loud voice.

2.23123 From past experience he knows that you tend to be abrupt and not very generous or thoughtful when you sound angry. He decides not to approach you today. His frustration arises not because you have denied him the raise in fact, but because he anticipates that you will do so if he asks you.

2.23124 From his point of view, you have denied him the opportunity to ask for the raise. From your point of view, you probably have no idea that this event has occurred.

2.232 Internal and external frustrations are interdependent, and frustrations in one area may contribute to increasing or decreasing frustrations in other areas.

2.2321 If a person feels incompetent or inadequate in some aspect of his life, he will tend to act in incompetent and inadequate ways, and thereby his chances of satisfying his needs with regard to that aspect of his life will be reduced.

2.2322 Internal frustration may be caused originally by external sources. For example, frustrations imposed upon us by parents and teachers in early life we may accept and continue to impose upon ourselves. This phenomenon is referred to as introjection -- accepting the values or

attitudes of someone else as one's own.

2.233 The ways people react to frustration depend to some extent on the strength of the needs or goals being frustrated. The stronger the need, the stronger the reaction to frustration is likely to be. Somehow, the obstacle must be removed or circumvented, or the goal must be modified or abandoned.

2.2331 The most primitive reaction is direct aggression and anger against the frustrating person or object.

2.2332 Frustration may also be handled by displaced aggression, that is, aggressive action against an innocent person rather than against the real cause of the frustration. A person who is reprimanded by his boss may react without much emotion at work, but later on at home may take out his unexpressed resentment on his family.[1]

2.2333 Frustration may also be met by apathy. When resistance seems futile, "the frustrated person may become sullen and detached instead of angry and defiant. Apathy often indicates that aggressive tendencies are being held in check or inhibited, but they may express themselves indirectly."[2]

2.2334 If frustration becomes too difficult to handle, the individual may try to escape by working out substitute satisfactions in fantasy. Instead of receiving satisfaction on a realistic level, he works out alternate solutions in a dream world.

2.2335 On a more realistic and mature level, response to frustration takes on the character of problem solving. Man is capable of rational problem solving. He can face a problem and weigh alternative solutions in terms of their probable consequences, taking action as is appropriate.

2.2336 Most human behavior that appears rational and activated by conscious reasoning is, however, very likely to be activated by unconscious motives as well.[3]

2.24 To describe and discuss aggression as one of the factors involved in the dynamic theory model of human behavior.

2.241 Aggression has been defined by psychologists as destructive activity of any sort; or activity undertaken in order to do harm to another person, either through some kind of belittling or malicious ridicule.[4]

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[1]Ernest H. Hilgard, and Richard C. Atkinson, Introduction to Psychology, 4th. ed. (New York:Harcourt, Brace & World, 1967), p. 512.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid., pp. 521-522.

[4]Ibid., p. 618.

2.242 Human aggression is sometimes admired as an indication of personal strength, boldness and superiority. Other times it is seen as a personal liability, an indication of cruelty and ruthlessness.

2.243 Aggression has an evolutionary basis. It is essential for survival, and is a prime human characteristic. To be aggressive is normal human behavior.

2.2431 Psychologists are not in agreement as to the origin of human aggression.[1] Some have tried to show that it is an inherent characteristic of man; that man has a need to inflict pain on others.

2.2432 According to dynamic theory, aggression is the result of frustration. Man has many needs and drives, and when they are frustrated, he becomes aggressive in his attempts to satisfy them.

2.244 The functions of aggression are primarily three: to obtain satisfaction from the external world, to avoid pain, and to enhance the ego.

2.2441 Aggression can also be seen as an attempt to gain possession, to attack or destroy, to control, to dominate, and/or to assert oneself.

2.2442 Aggression tends to become stronger as one's drive to satisfy a particular need becomes stronger; for instance, the hungrier a person is, the more aggressively he will search for food.

2.245 The forms aggression takes vary considerably from person to person. Aggression may be physical or verbal, active or passive, direct or indirect.

2.2451 Verbal responses, such as shouting, screaming or swearing may serve as substitutes for more active forms of aggression, and often provide release for accumulated tension.[2]

2.2452 Aggression is frequently displaced, directed toward an innocent person or at the world in general, rather than at the actual source of frustration.

2.2453 Sometimes it is turned inward on oneself. In such cases the individual may "engage in exaggerated self-accusations and recriminations and may feel severe guilt and self-devaluation ...turning one's hostility inward gains feelings of safety at the expense of feelings of self-respect."[3]

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[1]Ibid., pp. 148-149.

[2]Symonds, op. cit., p. 101.

[3]Coleman, op. cit., p. 226.

2.2454 Aggression may also take the form of resistance, negativism and defiance. There is evidence that it is more likely to be expressed in such negative form when the desired goal is perceived as unattainable.[1]

2.246 Controls for aggression are established by society and by individuals themselves.

2.2461 Every society makes some provision for control of aggression through its institutions (schools, churches, unions, etc.), laws and customs.

2.2462 Every society also makes provision for the controlled expression of aggression.

2.24621 Competitive sports, for instance, provide considerable outlet for aggression. We no longer have gladiator-type sports in which the opponent is killed (although killing animals is still considered sport in most parts of the world), but we have fierce competitions within bounds prescribed by the rules of the game.

2.24622 Competitive pressures -- the need to win -- in sports, in school, on the job, are the source of great frustration as well, since obviously not everyone can win.[2]

2.2463 In addition to external controls, it is also important for the well-being of society that each individual build up within himself a system of self control.

2.24631 If carried too far, self control is stifling and the individual becomes inhibited and unable to express himself.

2.24632 The individual must learn to balance self discipline and self control with self expressiveness and creativity.

2.24633 The task for society and for each individual is not to inhibit aggressive impulses, but to channel and direct them toward the accomplishment of positive goals whenever possible.

2.25 To describe and discuss punishment as one of the facets involved in the dynamic theory model of human behavior.

2.251 Psychologists define punishment as a negative incentive, capable of

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[1]Ibid., p. 219.

[2]Ibid., p. 184.

producing pain or annoyance. A negative incentive must be perceived or anticipated in order to have effect. It is to be avoided because of the pain it might cause.[1]

2.252 Punishment is used as a form of control in all societies. It is an attempt to prevent certain behavior.

2.2521 The child is spanked when he throws his oatmeal across the room. Not liking to be spanked, he learns not to throw food. In this sense, punishment is intimately connected with learning.

2.2522 But the relationship between punishment and learning is not so simple. Many times the child who is punished in school may take a defiant attitude toward the teacher, thus devoting his energies to outwitting or punishing the teacher rather than to the curriculum.

2.2523 Punishment is often unsuccessful as a means of preventing behavior. Many psychologists now feel it is less effective as as a means of social control than rewarding "good" behavior.[2]

2.253 Punishment is not synonymous with discipline, for discipline refers to any method used to guide or control behavior, and often it may take the form of encouragement rather than punishment.[3]

2.254 Punishment takes many forms, some obvious, and others less so. Common forms are: deprivation, bodily injury, insults or jeers, injury to one's family or possessions, incarceration, exclusion, discrimination, ostracism, threats, neglect, scorn, ridicule.

2.2541 Punishment is a form of aggression. The person who administers the punishment is acting aggressively.

2.2542 It may be deserved or undeserved. Consider the phenomenon of displaced aggression in the context of punishment. The parent who spanks his child may be reacting chiefly to humiliating circumstances he was forced to undergo on the job.

2.2543 Punishment can often be viewed as a form of counter-aggression.

2.255 Responses to punishment vary depending on the individual and the circumstances.

2.2551 The most direct response to punishment is aggression. The

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[1]Hilgard and Atkinson, op. cit., pp. 134, 634.

[2]Ibid., p. 357.

[3]Symonds, op. cit., p. 113.

person who is punished is frustrated because certain behavior on his part has been prohibited. He becomes angry with the prohibition and tries to strike back at the punisher.

2.2552 The person being punished may not have adequate power to inflict pain on the punisher, for the latter is often in a much stronger position (child in relation to adult; worker in relation to supervisor). In such cases aggressive behavior is likely to take less direct forms such as apathy and negativism, sullen defiance, or attempts to outwit the punisher.

2.2553 If carefully and wisely administered, punishment may result in the individual's renewing his efforts to find alternative behavior which will not only satisfy his needs but also avoid provocation of punitive responses from others.

2.2554 It is possible too that punishment may allow release of tensions and guilt. A person who is punished may feel that he has paid the price for his act and now has a "clean slate."

2.256 Punishment is risky as a form of control, for it often has negative effects.

2.2561 It may reduce a person's self esteem, his initiative and interest.

2.2562 Punishment must be associated with a specific act rather than with the person himself, and this distinction must be made clear to the person being punished. Otherwise, the punishment will tend to create feelings of inadequacy and insecurity.

2.2563 Perhaps the most serious limitation of punishment is that it can stop an action, but does not help the individual find a more acceptable way of satisfying the needs which led to the undesirable behavior in the first place.[1]

2.26 To describe and discuss anxiety as one of the factors involved in the dynamic theory model of human behavior.

"The evidence is overwhelming...that men and women of today live in an 'age of anxiety.' If one penetrates below the surface of political, economic, business, professional, or domestic crises to discover their psychological causes, or if one seeks to understand modern art or poetry or philosophy or religion, one runs athwart the problem of anxiety at almost every turn. There is reason to believe that the ordinary stresses and strains of life

[1]Symonds, op. cit., pp. 126-129.

in the changing world of today are such that few if any escape the need to confront anxiety and to deal with it in some manner."[1]

2.261 Anxiety has been defined as a diffuse apprehension, differing from fear in that fear is a reaction to a specific danger while anxiety is more general, more persistent, and unspecific.[2]

2.2611 Anxiety is closely related to feelings of incompetence, helplessness, and personal inadequacy. If a person feels confident of his ability to deal with a problem, his anxiety is likely to be at a minimum.

2.2612 Man's existence is limited, and he is vulnerable to natural disasters, sickness and death. Realization of these limitations gives rise to much anxiety.

2.2613 Although it is defined as more "vague" and less specific than fear, anxiety is not less painful, for it attacks the very essence of one's personality. The person is afraid, but uncertain of what he fears.

2.2614 By reacting adequately to specific dangers, a person minimizes anxiety. If he cannot meet specific dangers adequately, he will be threatened on a deeper level.[3]

2.262 Anxiety is closely related to frustration, hostility and aggression, according to the dynamic theory model of human behavior.

2.2621 When a person is blocked in his attempts to satisfy his needs, he is frustrated and tends to react with aggression and hostility toward the source of the frustration.

2.2622 Fearing the consequences of his own hostility and aggression, the person will feel anxiety. Anxiety is thus related to anticipated future dangers.

2.2623 Anxiety is a painful experience, and the anxious person tends to feel angry and resentful toward those he feels are responsible for his anxiety.[4] This anger in turn may give rise to more anxiety.

2.263 Anxiety may be expressed physically through such symptoms as rapid breathing, rapid heart beat, loss of appetite or compulsive eating, inability to move, sweating, headaches, insomnia and so on.

2.264 Feelings accompanying anxiety may include uneasiness, helplessness, loneliness, isolation, pessimism, anticipating the worst, gloom,

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[1]Rollo May, The Meaning of Anxiety (New York:Ronald Press, 1950), p. v.

[2]Coleman, op. cit., pp. 406-407.

[3]May, op. cit., pp. 192-195.

[4]Ibid., p. 222.

and so forth.[1]

2.265 Constructive ways of dealing with anxiety must begin with the recognition that both fear and anxiety are normal and permanent parts of the human condition.[2]

2.2651 It is important for each person to try to distinguish between realistic and unrealistic fear and anxiety. Is there real danger? Is my reaction realistic in terms of the degree of danger? Is my reaction related to actual problems or to pervasive feelings of anxiety?

2.2652 Making such distinctions is not always easy, but it is useful to try. Only by recognizing and examining one's feelings can a person gain a degree of mastery over them.

2.2653 If certain kinds of situations provoke anxiety, we can sometimes take measures to modify our reactions or we can learn to proceed in spite of the fear. "As we become accustomed to functioning in fear-producing situations, we may find our fear lessening..."[3]

2.266 The way a person adjusts to his anxiety determines in large part the uniqueness of his personality. Anxiety is a condition of personal development.

2.2661 People vary considerably in their ability to tolerate anxiety.

2.2662 For some people, anxiety can be a positive motivating force, and for others, it can be a destructive and debilitating force.

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[1]Symonds, op. cit., pp. 152-156.
[2]Coleman, op. cit., p. 407.
[3]Ibid., p. 408.

2 OBJECTIVES

UNIT 2
SECTION 3

2.3 To provide an awareness of some different theories of personality and their possible relevance to understanding employees in the work situation.

Unit 2: Section 3

Other Theories of Personality

2.3 To provide an awareness of some different theories of personality and their possible relevance to understanding employees in the work situation.

2.31 Personality has been defined as the arrangement of personal characteristics and ways of behaving that determines an individual's unique adjustment to his environment.[1] A theory of personality, then, is an attempt to explain an individual's unique adjustment to the world he lives in. There are many different theories of personality, and each, to some extent, reflects different emphases.

2.311 For years, students of human behavior have debated such questions as the relative importance of conscious and unconscious determinants of behavior, whether or not man's behavior is primarily purposive, whether or not man is primarily hedonistic, seeking pleasure and avoiding pain.

2.312 Does man have freedom of choice in his actions or is all his behavior determined? Is it legitimate to isolate for analysis one aspect of human behavior or does isolation of one aspect do violence to the integrity of the whole organism? Should more emphasis be placed on homeostatic mechanisms or on man's ability to grow and change?[2]

2.313 Accurately interpreting and understanding human behavior is not at all a simple task. For this reason, it is useful for the administrator, in his attempts to understand human behavior in the work place, to have some awareness of the wide variety of theories and concepts that have been devised for interpreting personality.

2.314 The brief sampling of personality theories that follows is

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[1]Ernest H. Hilgard, and Richard C. Atkinson, Introduction to Psychology, 4th ed. (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1967), p. 462.

[2]Calvin S. Hall, and Gardner Lindzey, Theories of Personality 2d ed. (New York: Wiley, 1970), pp. 19-27.

intended to show something of the range of personality theories. No attempt is made to discuss their relative merits.

2.32 Psychoanalytic theories of personality, both Freudian and more contemporary adaptations, have had tremendous impact on 20th century thought, not only in the medical and social sciences, but in philosophy, art, and literature as well.[1]

2.321 Most of our knowledge about the unconscious determinants of human behavior comes from the psychoanalytic method.

2.322 According to Freud, the personality is made up of three systems: the id, the ego, and the superego. Human behavior is nearly always the result of interaction and conflict among these three systems.[2]

2.323 Freud emphasized the developmental aspect of personality, and he stressed the importance of early childhood years in determining adult personality.

2.324 He recognized the significance of dreams, and theorized that dreams are an expression of the human mind in its most primitive state. He believed dreams to be a valuable source of information about the dynamics of human personality.

2.325 Freud has been much criticized for his over-emphasis of sex and aggression, and his theories have been modified and reinterpreted by more recent theorists.

2.326 In addition, many people feel his theories are of less value today, because they are based on clinical experiences with patients in Vienna some fifty years ago, thus reflecting causes of neuroses and psychoses in a society that no longer exists.

2.327 Yet Freud's ideas are challenging, and one need not subscribe to them all in order to realize the tremendous contribution they make toward our understanding of personality.

2.33 Rogers' self theory provides a somewhat different focus on personality, although similar in the sense that Rogers' theory too, is based primarily on his therapeutic relationships with troubled patients.

2.331 Rogers believes that the basic drives of a human being are to realize one's potentiality. The individual strives to make his life complete: this striving is the driving force behind his behavior.

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[1] Ibid., p. 32.

[2] Ibid., pp. 27-72

2.332 Human beings are vibrant, changing, and unpredictable. "Life, at its best, is a flowing, changing process in which nothing is fixed...when life is richest and most rewarding it is a flowing process."[1]

2.333 For Rogers, life is always in the process of becoming. He sees the same trend in all organic and human life: "the urge to expand, extend, develop, mature -- the tendency to express and activate all the capacities of the organism, or the self."[2]

2.334 Rogers believes that each person is trying to find the answers to two questions: "Who am I?" and "How may I become myself?" The person who has the inner freedom to be himself becomes more open to all the elements of his experience, and he learns to live his life as a participant in an ongoing process in which he is continually discovering new aspects of himself.

2.335 Man is "a continually changing constellation of potentialities, not a fixed quantity of traits."[3]

2.34 Maslow, like Rogers, conceptualizes a self-fulfillment model of human behavior.

2.341 Maslow distinguishes between deficiency motivation (needs for food, safety, love and esteem) and growth motivation (needs for self-actualization).

2.342 He is interested in studying fully-functioning healthy individuals and believes psychology has been handicapped by its tendency to study malfunctioning, less healthy individuals.

2.343 "Contemporary psychology has mostly studied not-having rather than having, striving rather than fulfillment, frustration rather than gratification, seeking for joy rather than having attained joy, trying to get there rather than being there."[4]

2.344 Maslow's studies of self-actualized individuals show them to be realistically oriented, accepting of themselves and others,

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[1]Carl R. Rogers, On Becoming a Person (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1961), p. 27.

[2]Ibid., p. 351.

[3]Ibid., pp. 122-125.

[4]Abraham H. Maslow, Toward a Psychology of Being, 2d ed. (Princeton, N.J.: Van Nostrand, 1968), p. 73.

2.35 Kelly's consistency theory of personality is based on the fundamental postulate that "a person's processes are psychologically channelized by the ways in which he anticipates events."[1]

2.351 He emphasizes the importance of information or the emotional experience a person gets out of interacting with the external world.[2]

2.352 It is Kelly's view that the feedback a person gets from his interaction with his environment is more important to personality than inherited traits or characteristics.

2.353 This theory takes a position that personality develops as a result of learning. It is a result of getting feedback by interacting with one's environment.

2.354 The core of Kelly's personality theory is that man is continually attempting to control and predict the events he will experience.

2.355 In his interaction with his environment, man develops constructs.

2.3551 Constructs are interpretations of events.

2.3552 From the interpretation of these events, man will anticipate and attempt to influence those events which have not yet occurred.

2.3553 Constructs provide man with a set of expectations which can be used in considering what similar experiences may be like.

2.3554 The individual changes his constructs if his anticipations turn out to be inaccurate.

2.3555 Constructs are the bases of personality action.

2.356 When expectations fail to be confirmed by events, there is inconsistency, which then leads to anxiety on the part of the individual.

2.357 Constructs are organized into construction systems which make up one's personality.

2.36 Skinner's operant reinforcement theory represents another approach to understanding personality.

2.361 Skinner's theory is based on precise laboratory

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[1]George A. Kelly, The Psychology of Personal Constructs (New York: Norton, 1955), Vol. 1, p. 46.

[2]Salvatore R. Maddi, Personality Theories: A Comparative Analysis (Homewood, Ill.:Dorsey, 1968), p. 110.

experimentation.[1]

2.362 His work represents the molecular approach to studying behavior: that is, focusing on simple behavioral events. Only through studying simple events can more complex events be understood, according to Skinner.

2.363 He is interested in operant conditioning: that is, strengthening a response by rewarding it when it occurs. Reward learning is synonymous with operant conditioning.[2]

2.364 Major assumptions in Skinner's theory include the following: behavior is governed by laws, it is orderly and deterministic; behavior is determined by scientific variables which can be isolated and identified; behavior can be analyzed in terms of cause and effect relationships.

2.365 Skinner has experimented extensively with modifying behavior through operant reinforcement. The hungry rat is placed in a box. He moves around restlessly and occasionally presses a bar. Every time he presses the bar, he receives food. Soon he learns to press the bar in order to receive food; he has then learned an operant response that works.

2.366 Skinner's theories have received many applications in clinical settings -- both in individual and group therapy; in the training of animals; and in education. The whole trend toward programmed learning and use of teaching machines stems from Skinner's work.

2.37 Other theorists have attempted to classify personalities according to certain types. There are a number of such type theories.

2.371 Sheldon classified humans into three body types - endomorphs, ectomorphs, and mesomorphs, and tried to show correlations between physique and temperament. He believed that a person's physical make-up has considerable influence on his personality.

2.372 Jung divided personalities into psychological and social types: introverts and extroverts. Riesman referred to inner-directed and other-directed persons.

2.38 There are many other theories of personality. In conclusion it must be said that no one theory is likely to meet the needs of the

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[1]Hall and Lindzey, op. cit., pp. 476-514.

[2]Hilgard and Atkinson, op. cit., p. 631.

administrator, who must work with a wide diversity of human beings effectively. The purpose of examining personality theories here is not to suggest that the administrator adopt any one theory; rather it is to suggest that he or she gain some understanding of the variety of concepts that have been devised for interpreting the complexity of human behavior.

2

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UNIT 2

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Unit 2

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3 UNIT 3
WORK, MANAGEMENT AND THE WORKER: AN INTEGRATION OF THE SYSTEM

3 OVERALL OBJECTIVES

UNIT 3

3.1 To consider management as a system and its integration into the worker system.

3.2 To consider the librarian-worker as a system and its integration into the management system.

3.3 To consider interaction and response of the managerial system's goals and the worker system's goals.

3 OBJECTIVES

UNIT 3
SECTION 1

3.1 Management as a system and its integration into the worker system.

3.11 To examine the external forces and influences on the management system.

3.12 To examine the sources of power and authority of the management system and their impact on the employee worker system.

3.13 To examine clientele pressures on the management system and their impact on the employee system.

3.14 To examine how the vesting of authority and power leads to the functions of management.

3.15 To examine how the investment of authority in management establishes performance requirements on management.

3.16 To show how the librarian's role affects management performance requirements.

3.17 To examine the manager's capabilities and incentives to affect the employee's performance.

Unit 3: Section 1

Management As a System and Its Integration Into the Worker System

3.1 To consider management as a system and its integration into the worker system.

3.11 To examine the external forces and influences on the management system.

The library's objectives and responsibilities depend upon the social, political, and economic environment in which it is located. Library objectives are dependent upon society's objectives. As Shera has said, "the true frame of reference for the library is to be found in the coeval culture."[1]

3.111 The social environment of the library.

Lacy observed a few years ago that the "two most dynamic forces impelling the social changes that affect the library are probably the changing population patterns and the radically increased social investment in scientific and technical research and development."[2]

3.1111 Increase in educational enrollment; broadening and deepening of the educational curriculum at all levels; the highly organized character of contemporary life; growing numbers of disaffected youth turning to drugs; increasing determination among minority groups and women for equal treatment; the return home of thousands of war veterans, many of them facing unemployment -- all of these developments have impact on libraries today.

3.1112 The library's responsibilities must change in accordance with societal changes. Library responsibilities today must include: support of

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[1]Jesse H. Shera, Foundations of the Public Library (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1949), p. 248.

[2]Dan Lacy, "Social Change and the Library: 1945-1980," in Douglas Knight and E. Shepley Hourse, eds., Libraries at Large: Tradition, Innovation, and the National Interest (New York: Bowker, 1969), p. 3. Section 3.111 is based primarily on this article, pp. 3-21.

formal education at all levels; support of continuing self-education and retraining; playing a role in the reintegration into society of groups now largely excluded by lack of education and training; providing resources for informed public opinion and for personal, cultural and intellectual growth.

3.1113 Communications and technological advances have tremendous impact on libraries, as evidenced by such developments as the widespread distribution of paperbacks; new techniques for organizing and administering programs of great complexity; and storage of huge data banks of information.

3.1114 As society becomes more information-based, the library or information center must become a more essential operating component of society; the library must become a part of our essential machinery for dealing with society's basic concerns.

3.1115 The library's responsibility is to use the new technology to raise and broaden professional standards, to develop broad and imaginative patterns of national cooperation, and to express in daily operations a keen and pervasive sense of the library's enlarged social commitment.

3.112 The political environment of the library.

3.1121 The library administrator is political when he helps to shape legislation at the outset; he is political in his dealings with pressure groups that constantly try to influence him. He is political when he evolves a strategy, when he determines whom he can rely upon and to what extent, or who has the kind of influence he needs. All such administrative action is action in the political sense. The librarian is often engaged in activities that are political whether they are recognized as such or not.[1]

3.1122 Libraries need to participate much more effectively in decisions that influence their capacity to serve their users. For example, Fazar has said that if federal special libraries are to be effective they must "enter the institutional decision-making process in the establishments where they are frequently buried as a good thing, with little or no role in decisions... for executive program actions and resource allocations."[2]

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[1]Marshall Edward Dimock. and Gladys Ogden Dimock, Public Administration, 3d ed. (New York:Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964), pp. 101-113.

[2]Willard Fazar, "Program Planning and Budgeting Theory," Special Libraries, 60:423, September, 1969.

3.1123 The library administrator, no matter what type of library he serves, must be willing to enter the maelstrom of community or institution decision-making and defend the legitimate claims of the library. "He must know his community, its organization, its leadership, its processes, its opportunities as well as its constraints. He must have the professional self-confidence to do more than respond to spontaneously expressed service demands from the community; he must be willing to take risks by telling the community what his professional judgment tells him the community needs. He should not withdraw from the task of mobilizing support for his programs and, when necessary, assist in creating demands for them."[1]

3.1124 Areas for political action include planning, budgeting, cooperation and communication with the governing authority in order to increase bargaining power for appropriations.

3.1125 The librarian must master the politics of planning, the politics of budgeting, the politics of cooperation, and the politics of communication.

3.11251 Consider as an example the relatively new development of CATV (community antenna television). It is now estimated that more than 2,700 CATV systems in the U.S. are presently transmitting programs into 5,500,000 homes. The potential of CATV is only beginning to be realized.[2]

3.11252 What effect will CATV have on libraries? The answer to that question depends largely on librarians: "...we must make our case now. There are only so many channels; and many, many interested parties are clamoring for them. If we don't participate in franchise negotiations, we are sure to be left out, probably forever."[3]

3.11253 Librarians must learn the meaning of true long-range comprehensive planning, and must make sure they are part of the community planning team. Public library programs must be integrated with other public service programs. Special library programs must be integrated with other organizational programs and with other library

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[1]William R. Monat and others, "The Public Library and Its Community," quoted in Neal Harlow and others, Administration and Change: Continuing Education in Library Administration (New Brunswick, N.J.:Rutgers, 1969), p. 37.

[2]Brigitte L. Kenney, and Frank W. Norwood, "CATV: Visual Library Service," American Libraries, 2:723, July-August, 1971.

[3]Ibid., p. 726.

programs in the community.

3.11254 The politics of communication is public relations. The librarian must make sure that an effective and continuing public relations program is developed as a concomitant part of any action program. A special plan should be developed to keep significant officials informed at all times of the activities of the library.

3.1126 The necessity for political action is clear. The price of political neutrality has been public indifference and neglect. The librarian can no longer avoid politics, and must fight for the library's share of the budget and influence.

3.113 The economic environment of the library.

3.1131 Attitudes toward library financing usually become clearest at budget time. It is then that the library sees where the taxpayer wants to spend his money, where he places the library on his list of priorities; for it is in the allocation of funds, the ranking in dollars and cents, that the true value of a public agency in the mind of the public is measured.

3.1132 In 1969, when the city of Newark found itself short of funds, the library was one of two institutions deemed expendable by government officials. Only crisis action restored it. In Washington, D.C. in 1970, when public school administrators complained of unsafe conditions in the city schools, police protection was readily sent. When library administrators did the same, official censure was quickly forthcoming.

3.1133 The taxpayer today demands to be shown what services the library renders that entitles it to his support. The relatively recent dependence of libraries on federal funds has increased pressure on the library to justify its expenditures to the taxpayer. In general, the library has not met these demands very well, and the situation is a grave one.

3.1134 The nature of the library costs is such that they will continue to rise overall, in spite of improved efficiency and cost-reduction efforts. Some of the phenomena that cause rising costs are:[1]

3.11341 The knowledge explosion, which has greatly added to the number of volumes a given library must be

[1] "The Costs of Library and Informational Services," in Knight and Nourse, op. cit., pp. 168-192.

prepared to carry if it is to continue, in some sense, the level of service it has provided in the past.

3.11342 Innovations in technology, many of them related to the computer and automation, are available, but the full utilization of these innovations almost always increases costs.

3.11343 Salaries for trained librarians, library technicians and other employees have been constantly rising.

3.11344 Increasing cost of operation results in increasing pressure for more funds. Over a period when inflation was relatively small, library operating expenses were found to be doubling or more every 10 years. This implies serious long-run financing problems.

3.1135 Library costs are going up. Even with no improvement in library service, "the amount which suffices to support our libraries today will prove inadequate tomorrow, and the amount which is enough for their maintenance tomorrow will be insufficient the day after that. This is no fortuitous manifestation of the current state of the economy, but is rather a result inherent in the technology of library operation."[1]

3.11351 In libraries, as in colleges, direct services of trained personnel (librarians, professors) play the central role. Any substantial reduction in the amount of labor time supplied by these persons is likely to cause a deterioration of service. In short, library services "require substantial amounts of time of skilled librarians, for whom there is really no satisfactory substitute."[2]

3.11352 The technology of the library makes it difficult to dispense with the librarian's services. In manufacturing, the situation is quite different, for the consumer neither knows nor cares about the quantity of labor that goes into the final product.

3.11353 If library incomes try to keep up with the rise of incomes in the remainder of the economy, the costs of library operations will rise year after year in relation to the costs that characterize the economy as a whole.

3.11354 Statistics show that library costs per unit have gone up at a

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[1] "An Analysis of Library Cost Trends," in Knight and Nourse, op. cit., p. 194. Sections 3.1135 and 3.1136 are based primarily on this article, pp. 193-203.

[2] Ibid., p. 194.

substantially faster rate than those in the economy as a whole.

3.1136 Library cost trends indicate that the sources supplying library funds must be re-educated to the nature of the long-term obligation they assume if they are willing to allow the nation's libraries to deteriorate. They must be made to see that a fixed level of support, no matter how generous, will not do the job over any long period. They must be made to see that rising costs are not a matter of inflation alone, nor are they the consequence of mismanagement or inefficiency, but that they stem from the technology of the library.

3.12 To examine the sources of power and authority of the management system and their impact on the employee worker system.

3.121 Every library organization must have a system of authority whereby the central purposes or objectives of the organization can be translated into reality through the combined efforts of many specialists, each working in his own field at a particular time and place.

3.1211 A simple definition of authority is written or expressed permission and/or responsibility to act.

3.1212 Authority gives the organization its formal structure; it enforces responsibility of the individual to those who wield the authority; it secures expertise in decision making, and it permits coordination of activity.[1]

3.122 The authority structure of the public library.

3.1221 The head of the public library has authority, because he is the official head of the institution, he has power given him by legislative mandate, he is an employee of an official body, and he is an agent of the public.

3.1222 A gradual but drastic change in the relationship between public libraries and their governmental authorities has been taking place in the last thirty years or so. Four major trends in public administration have caused these changed relationships.

3.12221 The concentration of authority and responsibility for city and county administration in a single executive;

3.12222 The installation of more sophisticated budget and

[1]Herbert A. Simon, Administrative Behavior, 2d ed. (New York: Macmillan, 1957), p. 135.

accounting techniques.

3.12223 The spread of civil service and progressive personnel practices; and

3.12224 The growth of centralized purchasing.[1]

3.1223 As these practices have developed, it has become impossible for the public library to enjoy the same measure of freedom from central administrative control that was possible in the past.

3.1224 A more recent trend which is likely to alter the authority structure of the public library even further is growing unionization of both professional and nonprofessional employees in the public sector.

3.123 The authority structure of the university library.

3.1231 Up to about 1950, the usual pattern in university libraries was the president-director relationship in which the librarian was responsible directly to the president, and depended on the president to present the library's needs for funds and space to the university trustees.[2]

3.1232 Since that time, however, efforts have been made to decrease the number of officials reporting to the highest university administrative authority, and increasingly college and university officials have become directly responsible to deans or vice-presidents.[3]

3.1233 While this trend toward a narrower span of control at the top is in accordance with sound administration theory, it does place the librarian at a distinct disadvantage and in a less-favored position to promote the overall objectives of the library and develop a far-reaching library program.

3.1234 Unionization has taken place in university libraries as well as public libraries, thus modifying and delineating more sharply the authority structure of such libraries.

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[1]E.W. McDiarmid, and John McDiarmid, The Administration of the American Public Library (Chicago: American Library Association and University of Illinois, 1943), p. 16.

[2]Karl O. Burg, "Governing Authorities of Today," Library Trends, 7:379, January, 1959.

[3]John Dale Russell, "Changing Patterns of Administrative Organization in Higher Education," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 301:26-27, September, 1955.

3.124 Sources of power and authority in federal libraries.

3.1241 Federal libraries exist in a legalistic climate, and each library must be prepared to state what authority it has for doing whatever it is doing.

3.1242 Congress is anxious to control potential mushrooming of governmental functions, the Office of Management and Budget is charged with the responsibility of seeing that those things which are legally authorized are efficiently done, the General Accounting Office guards against misexpenditures of federal funds -- these and other agencies continuously question the statutory and regulatory authority under which the libraries and their parent agencies operate.

3.1243 Federal libraries are governed by: public laws, executive orders (although legally applicable only in the Executive Branch, they are often followed for the sake of uniformity by agencies in other branches), decisions of regulatory offices, departmental regulations, bureau regulations.[1]

3.1244 Federal libraries are also subject to security regulations which limit their authority.

3.1245 The power of the federal librarian is to a great extent determined by the organizational arrangement of the agency in which the library is located. The librarian may report directly to the head of the agency, but much more likely, he will report two or more steps below.

3.1246 Federal agencies are frequently reorganized, and consequently federal libraries are inevitably subject to reorganization, amalgamation and dissolution.

3.125 Libraries receiving federal or private grants are subject to the decisions, rules and regulations of the granting agency. Their authority with respect to expenditure of grant funds is thus limited.

3.126 The introduction of new technology into a library has considerable impact on the library's authority structure, as Presthus has pointed out in his recent study of librarians and technological change: "Authority centered in hierarchical roles may become merely symbolic, as practitioners of the new science change the conditions of participation and the currency of prestige."[2]

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[1]Verner W. Clapp and Scott Adams, issue eds. "Current Trends in Libraries of the United States Government," Library Trends, 2:3-170, July, 1953.

[2]Robert Presthus, Technological Change and Occupational Response: A Study of Librarians (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1970), p. 6.

3.127 The authority structure of the library has great influence on the employee worker system.

3.1271 People behave differently as members of organizations than they do as private individuals outside organizations.

3.1272 "Just as a steersman may permit his moment-to-moment decisions to be controlled by a course laid out beforehand on the map, so a member of an organization submits his behavior to the control of the decision-making portion of the organization."[1]

3.1273 "Acceptance of authority by the employee gives the organization a powerful means for influencing him--more powerful than persuasion, and comparable to the evoking processes that call forth a whole program of behavior in response to a stimulus."[2]

3.1274 The division of authority within the library makes important differences to members of the employee worker system. To what extent is the authority structure hierarchical, based on rank? To what extent is it divided along functional, or subject specialty lines?

3.1275 Is the authority structure of the library such that there is a continual struggle for influence and authority among workers? If so, does the power struggle detract from the functioning of the library? Or does this kind of competition result in better work?

3.1276 Is the authority structure so rigid that there is little room for new ideas and new approaches to be heard, debated, tried?

3.1277 Is decision making spread throughout the organization, or is it all concentrated at the top?

3.13 To examine clientele pressures on the management system and their impact on the employee system.

3.131 The National Advisory Commission on Libraries made a study of user needs a few years ago and found many inadequacies existing in all kinds of library service. Pervasive problem areas were manpower, financing, inadequate accessibility of library materials, and fragmentation of library programs, goals, and systems.

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[1]Simon, op. cit., pp. 134-135.

[2]James G. March, and Herbert A. Simon, Organizations (New York: Wiley, 1958), p. 90.

3.132 The Commission recommended that the following objectives be pursued on a nationwide basis to overcome the pervasive problem areas.

3.1321 Provide adequate library and informational services for formal education at all levels.

3.1322 Provide adequate library and informational services for the public at large.

3.1323 Provide materials to support research in all fields at all levels.

3.1324 Provide adequate bibliographic access to the nation's research and informational resources.

3.1325 Provide adequate physical access to required materials or their texts throughout the nation.

3.1326 Provide adequate trained personnel for the varied and changing demands of librarianship.[1]

3.133 Users' demands upon libraries have implications for library workers in many areas.

3.1331 A good example is the hours the library is open. Are the employees of a given library expected to work nights; are they expected to work Sundays and holidays?

3.1332 The technical and subject expertise required of library employees depends upon the library users.

3.1333 Does the library serve primarily children? Or does it serve primarily space engineers? Is the library located in the inner city or in the suburbs? Is it expected to serve the public at large, or only a select group of persons?

3.14 To examine how the vesting of authority and power leads to the functions of management.

3.141 Management, within the authority structure of a given library, must set and carry out library objectives to meet the needs of the social political and economic environment in which the library is located. If the library is to survive, it must provide the kinds of services its users, both actual and potential, require. It must provide the kinds of services society needs.

3.1411 In order to provide adequate library services, management must hire qualified staff, opportunities must exist for employees to grow and develop on the job.

3.1412 Staffing requires coordination, direction and control.

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[1]E. Shepley Nourse, "Areas of Inadequacy in Serving Multiple Needs," in Knight and Nourse, op. cit., pp. 162-167.

Management must perform these functions so that all employees will be contributing to the overall library objectives.

3.1413 Management must gain the support of those who fund the library, making sure that the funding sources are aware of the services available and are willing to pay for them.

3.14131 Writing about public libraries in the Library Inquiry of 1949, Garceau stated that "the fundamental fact...about board and librarian dealings with government is the profound ignorance of library business in city hall."[1] The same holds true today not only for public libraries, but for other kinds of libraries in relation to other kinds of funding agencies.

3.14132 Traditionally, the library has tended to function in isolation and has remained relatively aloof from active and effective power groups important to its survival.

3.14133 However apolitical in nature the library may be, the library administrator must become involved in the political decision-making process involving the distribution of funds. Library management must establish as a high priority a political power base for support.

3.1414 In order to carry out a purposive, comprehensive library program in accordance with users' needs and society's needs, library administrators must engage in planning on a long-range basis.

3.14141 With the present trend toward larger and more inclusive library systems and networks come larger and more complex library administrative problems.

3.14142 Library administrators have been criticized upon occasion for not using their time very well. "It is not unusual for the chief administrator of a medium or small public, academic, or school library... to be involved in activities which should

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[1]Oliver Garceau, The Public Library in the Political Process (New York: Columbia University, 1949), p. 88.

clearly be handled by staff..."[1]

3.14143 Library administrators must constantly look to the future. They must be planning for change rather than simply reacting to present crises.

3.142 The librarian must realize that his political and administrative base of support is constantly changing. It is not static, but dynamic, evolving from the local social system, the nature of the local economy, the central composition of local values, beliefs, and attitudes toward the role of government and the role of service organizations, both public and private.

3.143 It is gradually being recognized that library administrators must utilize more sophisticated administrative skills, and that the library profession must generally seek the aid of other disciplines such as political science and public administration in achieving this goal.[2]

3.15 To examine how the investment of authority in management establishes performance requirements on management.

3.151 Whether in nonprofit organizations, industry or government, managers in this country can almost always be replaced. Political officials can be defeated in elections, organizational administrators can be fired by boards of directors or higher governing authorities, supervisors can be transferred or terminated by higher management. If managers are not considered to be performing adequately, they can be removed from office.

3.152 Within the authority structure of any given organization, management is entrusted with carrying out the organization's objectives.

3.1521 In industry, management's overriding objective is to make a profit. In service organizations, management's primary objective is to provide needed service.

3.1522 If industrial management consistently fails to make a profit, the enterprise will go bankrupt. If service organizations do not provide services which are needed, or it their services are not accessible to those who need

[1]Ernest R. DeProspo, "Contributions of the Political Scientist and Public Administrator to Library Administration," in Neal Harlow and others, Administration and Change: Continuing Education in Library Administration (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers, 1969), p. 31.

[2]Ibid., pp. 29-33.

them, they will have trouble receiving the financial support necessary to continue.

3.1523 Management must succeed to at least some degree if the organization is to continue at all.

3.16 To examine how the librarian's role affects management performance requirements.

3.161 To say the library should give efficient service is a worthy goal, but is not specific enough to serve as a guide to action. In determining performance requirements in any given library, management must consider the following:[1]

3.1611 The library's mission. What is the mission? What are the reasons for the library's existence? What are the ultimate program expectations and ends? The library administrator should have a mission statement to serve as a guide for program goals and objectives.

3.1612 The internal organization system: a position audit of the resources at hand.

3.16121 What are the resources available to accomplish the mission: personnel, money, materials, machines, methods, supervisory skills?

3.16122 Where does the library stand in relation to the parent organization? What are the strengths and weaknesses of the parent organization? What are the capacities of the library and of the parent organization?

3.16123 What is the nature of the personnel? What are the library's standing plans, policies, procedures and methods, rules, budget?

3.1613 The environment system: environment research.

3.16131 What lies ahead in the environment for the library? What type of clientele should be served? What is the state of technology? What economic factors and trends must be considered?

3.16132 What regulatory problems and constraints exist? What opportunities are available for

[1]Section 3.16 is partially based on Fazar, op. cit., and Donald J. Smalter, and Rudy L. Ruggles, "Six Business Lessons from the Pentagon," Harvard Business Review, 44:64-75, March-April, 1966.

government and/or private funding.

3.16133 What are the main environmental influences that affect this particular library?

3.1614 Cooperating and competing library systems.

3.16141 What services are offered by other libraries in the area? What services are adequately met by other libraries that need not be duplicated?

3.16142 What are the pay scale and working conditions of other libraries?

3.16143 How can cooperation and information networks be worked out with other library systems and/or information centers?

3.1615 Forecasting over a multi-year period: five-year plans. What are the uncontrollable premises? What are the semi-controllable premises? What premises can be controlled?

3.162 Based on such data collection, the librarian should be able to state the library's mission, determine the problems, formulate hypotheses, classify, analyze and interpret all this information into conclusions which can be translated into proposed programs.

3.1621 What priorities should be assigned? What criteria are relevant in judging priorities?

3.1622 Specific problems, needs, threats, opportunities, and constraints should be as clearly recognized as possible.

3.1623 The librarian must then invent and develop alternative, feasible courses of action to meet specific program goals.

3.16231 The library's goals must be integrated with the goals of the parent organization.

3.16232 All program goals and plans should be set forth in a broad systems relationship and should be consistent with each other.

3.1624 Feasible alternative programs should be proposed. What approaches are feasible, what is the costing and funding of each proposed program alternative?

3.1625 The programs proposed should be evaluated and compared. What tests of preference should be used? Is the program really needed? How will it affect the library system? How will it affect the system of the parent organization? How will the new program compare with comparable activity being done in other libraries?

3.1626 All possible consequences that flow from each proposed program should be listed, and each proposal should be weighed in terms of the library's goals.

3.163 Based on such weighing and evaluating of alternate proposals, the librarian should be able to select the objective and the program best suited to meet the objective. Each decision becomes a guide to future action.

3.164 Once a program has been selected, a sequence of programming activities has to be delegated to the library staff. If it is to be effective, the action plan must be formulated and implemented by library employees.

3.1641 How is the program to be carried out? Who is to do it? Why do it in a particular way? Where is it to be done? When? These questions must be answered.

3.1642 Management must work out ways and means of getting the cooperation of everybody who is affected by the new program.

3.1643 Management must decide who is responsible for carrying out the new program, and must make sure that those assigned responsibilities are capable of carrying them out.

3.1644 Measurements and standards must be developed in connection with the new program.

3.1645 Plans affecting the new program must be communicated to all employees; all activities related to the new program must be coordinated and integrated throughout the system.

3.165 Once the plan is in action, it is necessary to get feedback. How is it working? What are the problems?

3.1651 Feedback should be solicited from library users, from library staff, and sometimes from reports and surveys as well. It should include actual observation on the part of management to make sure that performance requirements and criteria have been met.

3.1652 Provision for feedback should be built into the plan of action.

3.1653 Adjustments must be planned based on the feedback received, and actual results should be compared with planned results.

3.1654 The program must then be re-evaluated. It may need to be modified in some way, redesigned or dropped altogether.

3.166 The process of determining and carrying out management performance requirements in any library is a continuous cycle: meeting the forces and pressures of the environment and utilizing all resources available to help create library programs that will accomplish the library's mission. As the environment is constantly changing, both within and outside the library, and the resources available are also changing, the process of determining management performance requirements is a continual challenge: it never ends.

3.17 To examine the manager's capabilities and incentives to affect the employee's performance.

3.171 Top management has the power and authority to regulate, control, direct, reward, punish and discipline employees with respect to the carrying out of organizational objectives. In any given situation, the library manager must decide which techniques and strategies on his part will be most effective in maximizing the efforts and work of all employees toward achieving the library's objectives.

3.172 Management may try to obtain optimum output and cooperation from the library staff by offering financial rewards, promotion, improving working conditions, offering special identification or status symbols, allowing independence, encouraging achievement, and/or creating a climate conducive to participation in decision making.

3.173 Management decisions on what incentives to offer are limited by pressures on management for productivity, service, effective results, quality and quantity, effectiveness and efficiency, accountability, organizational control, and so forth.

3.1731 When tight deadlines have to be met, for example, participation in decision making is an inappropriate technique because it is too time-consuming.

3.1732 Likewise, if the library has been forced to take a budget cut, financial rewards will be very small or they may not be possible at all.

3.174 Management's capabilities for affecting employee performance depend on the resources available at any given time and on the imagination and perception with which individual managers view employee potential.

3 OBJECTIVES

UNIT 3
SECTION 2

3.2 The librarian-worker as a system and its integration into the worker system.

3.21 To examine the worker as a system of personality, attitudes, abilities, knowledge, skills.

3.22 To examine the worker as a need and goal system.

3.23 To examine the worker as a decision system.

3.24 To evaluate worker decision making and its impact on management goals.

3.25 To examine management perspectives of the worker.

3.26 To examine the worker's perspective of the job and management.

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The Librarian-Worker As a System and Its Integration Into the Management System

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3.21 To examine the worker as a system of personality, attitudes, ability, knowledge, skills.

3.211 The library employee enters the library as a complex, unique personality with feelings, emotions, ideas, attitudes, values, hopes, fears, anxieties, experience, expectations, knowledge, skills, abilities, motivations, goals, various degrees of maturity, various needs for security, dependence and independence, needs for a sense of self-worth, achievement and recognition, and a variety of worries, frustrations, problems and uncertainties.

3.212 The library worker is more than a person who comes to the library offering skills, knowledge and abilities. He is a whole person -- a system -- and he comes to his job as a total entity affected by outside, external influences as well as by internal influences.

3.22 To examine the worker as a need and goal system.

3.221 Each library employee can be viewed as a complex system of needs and goals some of which are job-related and others which are related to his life outside of work. Many of his needs and goals may conflict and overlap in complicated ways.

3.2211 Consider for a minute a hypothetical librarian. He must work in order to make money. He is paying for a house and wants to send his children to college.

3.2212 He is a professional librarian, and his work contributes to his sense of self-identity. In our society great importance is attached to work, and who we are may be judged in part, at least, on what we do.

3.2213 Our hypothetical librarian may have been happiest at work when he was senior reference librarian, but then he accepted a higher administrative position with more pay and more prestige.

3.222 An individual's needs and goals are subject to change and modification, and should not be viewed as fixed in time. As the individual is always in process, changing rather than static, so too his needs and goals should be viewed in a context of process.

3.23 To examine the worker as a decision system.

3.231 Most adults in our society like to think of themselves as autonomous individuals who make their own decisions with respect to their own lives.

3.232 When an individual joins an organization as an employee, he has to give up certain decision-making prerogatives. His behavior on the job must contribute to the objectives of the organization. His decision-making powers are limited by the authority structure of the organization.

3.233 Research has shown that a principal source of job satisfaction is autonomy and independence on the job.[1] Thus it is clear that most workers do not like to give up all decision making when they go to work.

3.24 To evaluate worker decision making and its impact on management goals.

3.241 March and Simon specify two types of decisions employees must make. "The first is the decision to participate in the organization -- or to leave the organization."[2]

3.2411 The greater the difference between the individual's self concept of what he wants to be and do and what he is actually doing, the greater will be his dissatisfaction and his desire to leave if conditions permit.

3.2412 In general, an individual will decide to participate or continue to participate in a system if he feels the inducements awarded him are at least equal to the the contributions he has to make. If inducements fall below contributions, the individual will probably decide to move if he feels he has the opportunity to find more satisfactory work.[3]

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[1]Timothy W. Costello, and Sheldon S. Zalkind, Psychology in Administration: A Research Orientation (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1963), p. 79.

[2]James G. March, and Herbert A. Simon, Organizations (New York: Wiley, 1958), p. 90.

[3]Ibid., p. 84.

3.2413 This decision, whether or not to participate, is a continual one, for at any point an employee may decide to leave the organization.

3.2414 Management is always faced with the possibility that employees will leave and that there will be a high rate of turnover.

3.2415 It is a continual challenge for management to try to influence employee decisions with regard to participation by offering adequate inducements. The challenge is complicated by the fact that what is seen as an adequate inducement by one employee may be seen as inadequate by another.

3.242 The second type of decision employees must make, according to March and Simon, is "the decision to produce or to refuse to produce at the rate demanded by the organization hierarchy."[1]

3.2421 In order to influence adequately the employee's decision to produce, the manager must understand something about the employee's motivation.

3.24211 Each individual reacts somewhat differently depending on his particular frame of reference.

3.24212 Each individual has a set of expectations and values which influence his course of action in any situation. Some alternatives will appear more attractive than others.

3.2422 The problem of influencing employees' decisions to produce is somewhat complicated in libraries by the fact that library work is dependent upon a large number of clerical workers whose duties are largely routinized.

3.24221 In almost every library, clerical workers outnumber trained librarians. They tend to be much younger than career librarians, with lower educational achievement and little commitment to a library career. Yet there is not always a very clear distinction between the work they do and the work of trained librarians.[2]

3.24222 Library management must devote considerable time and effort to providing opportunities for the library clerical employees to grow on the job. As a recent article in the Harvard Business Review points out,

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[1]Ibid., p. 48.

[2]Robert Presthus, Technological Change and Occupational Response: A Study of Librarians (Washington, D.C.:U.S. Office of Education, 1970), p. 24.

"unless management begins to act now, clerical discontent will increase in the future."[1]

3.25 To examine management perspectives of the worker.

3.251 In considering whether or not to hire a particular employee, management perspectives are weighted heavily in terms of the applicant's skills, knowledge, abilities, experience, and capacity to perform.

3.2511 Management will probably make some superficial judgments about the applicant's personality, stability, and motivation.

3.2512 But rarely is much consideration given to how the applicant as a personality will fit into the dynamics of the work group in which he or she will be working.

3.252 Once management and the applicant agree on acceptance of the position, the applicant becomes a regular employee, within the constraints of management's conditions. Management's perspective then becomes heavily oriented in terms of the individual's productivity.

3.26 To examine the worker's perspective of the job and management.

3.261 The worker may see his job as an opportunity for personal growth. He may see it as an opportunity -- potential, if not actual -- for influencing library programs and policies. Or he may see his job as a boring routine, a nine-to-five duty -- what he must do in order to make a living. He may see his job as a way of getting away from home, as something to do in the daytime. He may feel his job is completely beneath his capabilities and dignity. He may see his job as providing a needed service.

3.262 The worker can respond to his job by optimum performance and productivity, or he may simply choose to meet standards at whatever level is generally acceptable to management, making no attempt to excel beyond that level. He may cooperate with management willingly, or he may cooperate minimally. He may resist management directives, he may stall and put things off. He may cooperate in some ways and attempt to change management in other ways.

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[1]Alfred Vogel, "Your Clerical Workers Are Ripe for Unionism," Harvard Business Review, 49:54, March-April, 1971.

3.263 Whatever techniques the worker uses in his relationships with management, they will reflect in some measure both his own self-concept with respect to his job and the treatment he receives from individual managers.

3 OBJECTIVES

UNIT 3
SECTION 3

3.3 Interaction and response of the managerial system's goals and the worker system's goals.

3.31 To examine management's goals and employee goals.

3.32 To examine how these sets of goals interact.

3.33 To examine management power and its use to obtain management goals.

3.34 To examine employee power and its impact on management goals.

3.35 To consider the concept of integration of employee and management goals.

Unit 3: Section 3

The Goals of the Management System and the Goals of the Worker System - Interaction and Response

3.3 The goals of the management system and the goals of the worker system -- interaction and response.

3.31 To examine management goals and worker goals.

3.311 Library management goals.

3.3111 Goal of effectiveness. Management strives to make the library system effective. It has been estimated that in the next two decades particularly, the library field is bound to experience an unusual degree of technological and organizational change.[1] How can a library system be effective in times of great change. Bennis[2] has suggested three criteria of organizational effectiveness that are applicable to library organizations today.

3.31111 The first is adaptability -- the organization's ability to solve problems and react flexibly to changing environmental conditions; freedom to change in accordance with changing internal and external circumstances.

3.31112 The second has to do with sense of identity. An organization must have a clear sense of its mission. It must know what its goals are and what it must do to accomplish them.

3.31113 The last concerns capacity to test reality, the ability to search out, adequately perceive and correctly interpret the real properties of the environment, focusing on those conditions which have relevance for

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[1]Robert Presthus, Technological Change and Occupational Response: A Study of Librarians (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1970), p. 3.

[2]Warren G. Bennis, "Towards a 'Truly' Scientific Management: The Concept of Organization Health," General Systems: Yearbook of the Society for General Systems Research, 7:277-278, 1962.

the organization.

3.3112 Goal of growth. Management strives to make the library system grow. The size and shape of the library organization are dependent upon the environment in which it is located and upon the problems it must solve in order to survive in that environment. An organization's growth is not adequately measured in terms of the number of employees or the number of people served. Deutsch[1] has suggested four dimensions for measuring organizational growth.

3.31121 An increase in openness to the outside world, in receptivity to the environment.

3.31122 An increase in the organization's inner coherence, in the eificiency with which information is transmitted and responded to from one part of the organization to another.

3.31123 An increase in power, in the ability to change the environment in accordance with the organization's projected plans, policies, needs.

3.31124 An increase in learning capacity, in the ability of the organization to learn rapidly, originally, and creatively, and to change its goals rather than remaining prisoner of some temporary goal or ideal.

3.31125 In considering the growth of library systems today, it is useful for library management to examine reasons why organizations tend to stop growing. Boulding[2] has suggested two fundamental reasons.

3.311251 The first is what he calls the principle of increasingly unfavorable environment. A public library, for instance, finds it relatively easy to serve users who like libraries and want library services, but as the library continues to grow it meets much more resistance from others in the environment who have different experiences and who are not naturally inclined to the library's ideas. If it is to continue growing, the library must adapt its services to the needs of these people as well as its traditional users.

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[1]Karl W. Deutsch, "On Communication Models in the Social Sciences," Public Opinion Quarterly, 16:380, Fall, 1952.

[2]Kenneth E. Boulding, The Organizational Revolution (New York: Harper, 1953), pp. 22-24.

3.311252 The second he calls the principle of increasingly unfavorable internal structure. As the size of an organization increases, it becomes more and more difficult to maintain an adequate system of communication, and eventually information from the environment essential for the adaptability and growth of the organization no longer reaches top management. Or if it does reach top management, it is likely to be in the form of misinformation.

3.3113 Goal of stability. Management must seek stability as well as growth in the library system. The two goals are closely related. We must not "be infatuated with everything new and reject everything old. We have seen change that does senseless damage to significant continuities -- natural neighborhoods destroyed by the highway bulldozer, historic landmarks razed to make way for commercial development. In all growth there is a complex interweaving of continuity and change."[1]

3.31131 The organization's stability, its continued existence, may be dependent upon the facility with which it can adapt to change. Adaptation requires the modification of organizational relationships.

3.31132 If it is to continue to exist, the system must be able to allow for constructive change even though such change may deviate from established norms.

3.3114 Goal of interaction. Management must strive to create an organizational climate which encourages individual and group interaction to further, rather than detract from, the overall organizational objectives. Argyris, McGregor, Blake and Mouton and others have emphasized the importance of integrating personal and organizational goals.

3.3115 Organizational conditions necessary for effective managerial goal-setting include: the ability to take in and communicate information reliably and validly; internal flexibility and creativity to make the changes demanded by the information obtained; integration and commitment to the goals of the organization; an internal climate of support and freedom from threat.[2]

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[1]John W. Gardner, The Recovery of Confidence (New York: Pocket Books, 1970), p. 8.

[2]Edgar H. Schein, Organizational Psychology (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1965), pp. 103-104.

3.116 Guidelines for obtaining these conditions include recruitment, selection, and training practices which stimulate rather than demean people; maintaining realistic psychological relationships with all employees; making more effective use of group action; exerting leadership in the direction of goal-setting and value-definition.[1]

3.1161 Leadership has a unique obligation to manage the relationships between a system and its environment, especially with reference to the key functions of setting goals for the organization and defining the values or norms on which the organization must develop its sense of identity.

3.1162 Leadership should be viewed as a function in the organization rather than the trait of an individual. This function must be filled by those members who are in contact with the organization-environment boundary and who have power to set policy for the organization.

3.1163 If the organization does not have clear goals and a well developed sense of identity, there is nothing to be committed to and nothing to communicate.

3.1164 Although the leadership function usually falls to top management, there is no reason why the organization cannot develop its goals and identity collaboratively, engaging every member down to the lowest echelons. Top management must make sure that goals are set, but they may choose a variety of ways of doing so.

3.3117 Systems will work better if these conditions are met. "The argument is not based on the assumption that this would be nice for people or make them feel better," Schein has stated. "Rather, the argument is that systems work better if their parts are in good communication with each other, are committed, and are creative and flexible."[2]

3.312 Employee goals.

3.3121 The individual has self-goals with respect to his work and with respect to his life. He is an individual continually changing and in process; his goals too are subject to change.

3.3122 He has economic needs, psychological and social needs, needs for dependence and independence, needs for achievement. At different times in his life, certain of his needs take precedence over others.

3.3123 Maslow's hierarchy provides a convenient way of viewing individual

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[1]Ibid.

[2]Ibid., pp. 104-106.

needs and goals.

3.32 To examine how these sets of goals interact.

3.321 The relationship between organizational goals and individual goals is a subject of much importance today. Bakke has stated the problem thus:

"How can we strengthen the group, upon whose stability and efficiency the individual must largely depend for the realization of his personal aspirations; without destroying the initiative, inventiveness, personal skills, and character of the individual, upon whom the group must ultimately depend for its strength?"[1]

3.3211 In attempting to answer the question, Bakke developed a model which he named the fusion process.[2]

3.32111 The fusion process is the simultaneous attempt of the organization to make the individual over in its own image, and of the individual to make over the organization in his own image.

3.32112 Both the organization and the individual are modified in the course of the fusion process.

3.3212 Bakke summarizes the model as follows: socializing process combined with personalizing process equals fusion process.

3.32121 The socializing process refers to attempts on the part of the organization to make the individual an agent for the achievement of organizational objectives.

3.32122 The personalizing process refers to attempts on the part of the individual to make the organization an agency for the achievement of his personal objectives.

3.32123 The simultaneous operation of these two processes, he calls the fusion process.

3.3213 Organization and individual are mutually dependent on each other, and both must change in the fusion process. "The organization to some degree remakes the individual and the individual to some degree remakes the organization."[3]

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[1]E. Wight Bakke, The Fusion Process: A Map for the Exploration of the Relationship of People and Organizations (New Haven: Yale University Labor and Management Center, 1953), p. 3.

[2]Ibid., pp. 1-22.

[3]Ibid., pp. 12-13.

3.322 Simon analyzes the interaction of individual and organizational goals in terms of the phenomenon of identification, the tendency of individuals to evaluate their own position in relation to the values of others and to accept others' values as their own.[1]

3.3221 Identification is the process whereby the individual substitutes organizational objectives for his own aims. Gradually the individual absorbs organizational goals.

3.3222 "The organization assigns to him a role: it specifies the particular values, facts, and alternatives upon which his decisions in the organization are to be based."[2]

3.3223 The stronger the individual's identification with a group, the more likely that his individual goals will conform to his perception of group goals. Simon states five basic hypotheses in this area.[3]

3.32231 The greater the perceived prestige of the group, the stronger the propensity of an individual to identify with it; and vice versa.

3.32232 The greater the extent to which goals are perceived as shared among members of a group, the stronger the propensity of the individual to identify with the group and vice versa.

3.32233 The more frequent the interaction between an individual and the members of the group, the stronger the propensity of the individual to identify with the group; and vice versa.

3.32234 The greater the number of individual needs satisfied in the group, the stronger the propensity of the individual to identify with the group; and vice versa.

3.32235 The less the amount of competition between the members of a group and an individual, the stronger the propensity of the individual to identify with the group and vice versa.

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[1]James G. March, and Herbert A. Simon, Organizations (New York: Wiley, 1958), p. 65.

[2]Herbert A. Simon, Administrative Behavior, 2d ed. (New York: Macmillan, 1957), p. 198.

[3]March and Simon, op. cit., pp. 65-66.

3.33 To examine management power and its use to obtain management goals.

3.331 The dilemma management faces today has been well summed up by Beckhard.[1] "How can we optimally mobilize human resources and energy to achieve the organization's mission and, at the same time, maintain a growing organization of people whose needs for self worth, growth, and satisfaction are significantly met at work?"

3.332 While in the past management could and did use its power and authority to force workers to comply with managerial goals, society today has changed significantly. In recent years we have witnessed considerable erosion of authority and it is very difficult if not impossible today to successfully force people to do things.

3.333 Writers such as Beckhard think that there is no longer a real choice as to whether managerial goals can be pursued at the expense of individual goals. Both must be faced and dealt with -- the goals of the individual employees as well as the goals of management. The two are interdependent.

3.34 To examine employee power and its impact on management goals.

3.341 Many people today feel that current changing conditions -- the knowledge-technology-communication explosions, the rise of affluent societies, the values held by youth, ethnic and other minorities-- have produced a completely new set of expectations of the contract between employer and employee from those that existed a few years ago.[2]

3.342 Some values in relation to man and his work place that are becoming increasingly recognized are the following:

3.3421 Man has a right to be free and independent. He wants to be a whole person in relation to his job, and does not wish to be considered just an extension of someone else.

3.3422 Man should have choices as to where he works. He is not bound to any one organization.

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[1]Richard Beckhard, "McGregor Revisited and Reaffirmed," BNA Films Projector:2:3, January, 1971. Sections 3.34 and 3.35 are based primarily on this article.

[2]For example see Warren G. Bennis, "The Leader of the Future," Public Management, 52:13-19, March, 1970; Clarence C. Walton, Ethos and the Executive:Values in Managerial Decision Making (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.:Prentice-Hall, 1969); or Beckhard, op. cit.

3.3423 If his needs are in conflict with organizational requirements or the organization's mission, it is appropriate for him to try to meet his own needs before moving to meet organizational requirements.

3.3424 The employer must not only provide economic incentives and good working conditions. He also has responsibility for collaborating actively in meeting the individual employee's needs for achievement, self-esteem and growth.

3.3425 Organizational power need not be viewed as a fixed quantity, but rather it is susceptible of indefinite growth as it is shared. Participative management is emerging in which administrator and worker share powers of decision on the matters that directly affect the employee, not only with respect to his welfare, but also with respect to the use of his talents.

3.35 To consider the concept of integration of employee and management goals.

3.351 If management today is not tuned in to changing values, it is very likely to find itself having difficulty attracting new talent to join the organization. In addition, it is likely to have trouble in dealing with many of the younger employees.

3.352 Increasingly middle-term employees, particularly professionals, may opt for a more meaningful job elsewhere, for organization loyalty is becoming less and less of a norm in organizations.

3.353 Beckhard[1] has raised some critical questions for management's consideration.

3.3531 How much is management willing to re-examine work and move it toward being primarily concerned with meeting individual needs for achievement, recognition, and satisfaction, while at the same time the worker is doing useful organizational tasks?

3.3532 How much is management willing to re-examine organizational structures and to replace them as needed? How much is management willing to experiment with new, temporary systems, to operate in a matrix, with shared responsibility? How much is management willing to let form follow function?

3.3533 How much is management willing to work toward a

[1]Beckhard, op. cit., p. 3.

climate of openness, in which all employees are free to express feelings as well as discuss facts?

3.354 These and other questions are no longer academic; they represent real and pressing problems for managers in organizations. Satisfactory answers to such questions are a matter of high priority today.

3

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UNIT 3

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Unit 3

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Chapter 8: Power and Union Organizations
Chapter 12: Status and Prestige in the Work Organization
Chapter 14: The Will to Work in Industrial Society

Unit 3, Bibliography

Nouri, Clement J. "Challenge Not Security," The Personnel Administrator, 14:30-34, July-August, 1969.

What environmental, personal or job-related conditions determine employees' attitudes toward their jobs? What changes, if any, should top management introduce to attract and retain its employees? To answer these and other questions, a study was conducted at Oklahoma City University in which over 400 students participated. The results are discussed in this article.

Nourse, E. Shepley. "Areas of Inadequacy in Serving Multiple Needs," in Douglas M. Knight and E. Shepley Nourse, eds. Libraries at Large: Tradition, Innovation, and the National Interest. New York: Bowker, 1969, pp. 161-167.

The nation's library inadequacies are discussed and objectives proposed for overcoming them.

Presthus, Robert. Technological Change and Occupational Response: A Study of Librarians. Washington, D.C.: U. S. Office of Education, June, 1970.

The report of a study conducted as part of the Maryland Manpower Research Program on the library occupation and its capacity to accommodate to the pervasive changes now confronting the library field, including moves toward professionalization and unionization, reorientation of its service role toward working-class clients, and preparing itself for computer-inspired automation. A very interesting report which librarians would do well to read and ponder.

Russell, John Dale. "Changing Patterns of Administration Organization in Higher Education," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 301:22-31, September, 1955.

A discussion of the changes that have taken place in the administrative organization of colleges and universities as enrollments have increased and subject matter expanded at tremendous rates.

Salisbury, Robert H. "Trends in Urban Politics and Government: The Effect on Library Functions," in Ralph W. Conant, ed., The Public Library and the City. Cambridge, Mass.: M. I. T., 1965, pp. 143-154.

Recent trends in urban and political patterns and their implications for public libraries. Emphasis is on the library's potential role in the political process.

Schein, Edgar H. Organizational Psychology. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1965.

An unusually clear, jargon-free discussion of organizations, the problems of allocating and utilizing human resources, and the problems of survival, growth, and capacity to adapt to and manage change, this book is short, easy to read, and highly recommended for practicing managers. Schein emphasizes throughout the importance of the systems approach: "Organizational psychology as a field is intimately tied to the recognition that organizations are complex social systems, and that almost any questions one may raise about the determinants of behavior within organizations have to be viewed from the perspective of the entire social system."

Scott, William G. Organization Theory: A Behavioral Analysis for Management. Homewood, Ill.: Irwin, 1967.

Scott views management from a behavioral point of view.

Chapter 3: Personality Dynamics and Motivation
Chapter 8: Status and Role Concepts
Chapter 9: Concepts of Social Influence
Chapter 14: Productivity Dynamics
Chapter 18: Executive Roles

Shera, Jesse H. Foundations of the Public Library. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1949.

The origins of the public library movement in New England, 1629-1855, with emphasis on the direct relationship between the public library's objectives and the objectives of the society in which it is located.

Shirley, David. "The Politics of Budgeting," ALA Bulletin, 55:815-817, October, 1961.

Public librarians must educate their funding sources to the needs of the library. Dr. Shirley suggests several ways this education process can be initiated. He also sizes up the political strengths and weaknesses of the public library vis-a-vis city hall.

Simon, Herbert A. Administrative Behavior. 2d. ed. New York: Macmillan, 1957.

The key to organizational analysis according to Simon is to develop a careful and realistic picture of the decisions that are required for the organization's activity, and of the flow of premises that contribute to these decisions. Man does not act in completely

rational ways, selecting the best alternative from among all those available to him; rather he looks for a course action that is satisfactory or good enough. He "satisfices," to use a word Simon coined, rather than maximizes. The central concern of administrative theory then is with the boundary between the rational and non-rational aspects of human social behavior. Administrative theory is the theory "of the behavior of human beings who satisfice because they have not the wits to maximize."

Smalter, Donald J. and Rudy L. Ruggles. "Six Business Lessons from the Pentagon," Harvard Business Review, 44:64-75, March-April, 1966.

The authors claim that six lessons the Pentagon has learned are also applicable to other organizations. They are: (1) top management's primary job in any organization is allocation of limited resources for selected mission purposes; (2) short-term planning must be integrated with long-term planning; (3) management should apply operations research and systems analysis to complex strategy problems; (4) planning is best done through logical systems; (5) task sequence diagrams are useful in planning; and (6) decision making centers are useful devices for expediting review or approval of programs in complex organizations. An excellent article that includes diagrams and charts.

Tannenbaum, Robert, and Warren H. Schmidt. "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern," Harvard Business Review, 36:95-101, March-April, 1958.

The authors discuss first the range of possible leadership behavior available to a manager, and then the types of leadership that are practical and desirable. In deciding how to manage, the manager must consider forces operating within his own personality, forces affecting subordinates' behavior, and environmental pressures.

Tuttle, Helen W. "Women in Academic Libraries," Library Journal, 96:2594-2956, September 1, 1971.

Is there discrimination against women in academic libraries today? The author claims yes. She says that women in libraries make up the majority of professional personnel (four out of every five) yet top opportunities go to men and there appears to be a growing trend toward inequality between the sexes in the library profession. "We do not want to eliminate men from librarianship,"

she concludes, "We simply want to teach them to take minutes, to type, and to make coffee."

Vogel, Alfred. "Your Clerical Workers are Ripe for Unionism," Harvard Business Review, 49:48-54, March-April, 1971.

Management-clerical relationships can be improved if the clerical work is made more challenging and if management becomes more responsive to needs of clerical employees to be heard, to contribute to planning, and to know what is going on in the organization. Unless management begins to act now, Vogel concludes, clerical discontent will increase in the future and the result may be unionization of clerical workers.

Walton, Clarence C. Ethos and the Executive: Values in Managerial Decision Making. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1969.

Chapter 7 concerns the administrator and the worker: how to share income, how to share jobs, and how to share power.

Wheeler, Joseph L., and Herbert Goldhor. Practical Administration of Public Libraries. New York: Harper, 1962.

A guide to management principles and their practical application in public libraries.

Whyte, William Foote. Men at Work. Homewood, Ill.: Dorsey, 1961.

A scholarly and analytical study of man and his work and the factors that influence his situation.

Chapter 3: The Individual in his Organizational Environment
Chapter 4: The Work World in Intercultural Perspective
Chapter 7: Impact of the Economic Environment
Chapter 22: The Man-Boss Relationship
Chapter 31: The Individual
Chapter 32: The Group
Chapter 33: The Organization

4 UNIT 4
DEVELOPING THE LIBRARY'S HUMAN RESOURCES: MANAGERIAL STRATEGIES

4 OVERALL OBJECTIVES

UNIT 4

4.1 To introduce the concept of perception.

4.2 To examine some motivation theories and concepts, particularly as they relate to the work place.

4.3 To examine the theory and methodology involved in Organizational Development (OD).

4 OBJECTIVES

UNIT 4
SECTION 1

4.1 Perception

4.11 To show how perception affects our behavior.

4.12 To show how perception affects one's interpersonal behavior.

4.13 To show how perception affects one's impressions of others.

4.14 To show how perception sets up defensive reactions to others.

4.15 To examine some of the factors that influence perception.

4.16 To analyze how one's personal norms or standards are used to judge others.

4.17 To evaluate the influence of perception in the work situation.

Unit 4: Section 1

Perception

4.11 Introduction to the concept of perception and how it affects our behavior.

4.111 Perception has been a subject of study for centuries but there is still no formally accepted definition. In general terms it can be agreed that:

4.1111 Perception involves an interaction or transaction between an individual and his environment.

4.1112 The individual receives information from the external world which in some way modifies his experience and behavior.[1]

4.112 An individual's behavior in any given situation depends on how he sees things.

4.1121 Perception is selective. What a person sees is influenced by his background, culture, experience, expectations, needs, values.

4.1122 We are constantly shaping and reshaping our pictures of the world. From person to person there may be great differences in what we see and how we see it.[2]

4.1123 As Likert has stated, "an individual's reaction to any situation is always a function, not of the absolute character of the interaction, but of his perception of it. It is how he sees things that counts, not objective reality."[3]

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[1]Peter B. Warr and Christopher Knapper. The Perception of People and Events. (New York: Wiley, 1968), pp. 1-2.

[2]Mason Haire. Psychology in Management, 2d. ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964), p. 56.

[3]Rensis Likert. "A Motivational Approach to a Modified Theory of Organization and Management," in Mason Haire, ed., Modern Organization Theory. (New York: Wiley, 1959), p. 191.

4.12 How perception affects one's interpersonal behavior.

4.121 To establish mutually satisfactory and effective interpersonal relationships, an individual must have a generally accurate view of himself and of others.

4.1211 Common sense suggests that being able to size up other people accurately facilitates smoother and more effective interpersonal relationships.

4.1212 It is important that an individual understand insofar as possible his own motives in establishing relationships with others.

4.1213 In his studies of self-actualizing persons Maslow determined that such persons are far more apt to perceive what is there rather than their own wishes, hopes, fears, anxieties, their own theories and beliefs or those of their cultural group. "The consequence is that they live more in the real world of nature than in the man-made mass of concepts, abstractions, expectations, beliefs, and stereotypes that most people confuse with the world."[1]

4.13 How perception affects one's impressions of others.

4.131 When we first meet a person we perceive him as a unit, a whole. "We do not see his specific traits and then fit them together to form a general impression; we get an almost instantaneous impression."[2]

4.132 Such instant impressions are very likely to be wrong. We make up theories to explain people's actions, and we make predictions and assumptions based on our theories.

4.1321 One's basic view of human nature influences considerably his initial perceptual judgments of others.

4.1322 If we believe that people are generally not trustworthy, we will tend to perceive them that way.

4.133 Forming impressions of others is a complex process that is always susceptible of error and distortion.

4.1331 Stereotyping is a common form of perceptual distortion. It refers to a generalization about a group of people which is falsely attributed to individual members of the group. A common stereotype of

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[1]Abraham H. Maslow. Motivation and Personality. 2d. ed. (New York: Harper & Row, 1970)

[2]H. C. Smith. "Sensitivity to People, " in Hans Toch and Henry Clay Smith, eds. Social Perception: The Development of Interpersonal Impressions. (Princeton, N.J.: Van Nostrand, 1968), p. 10.

librarians has been that they are spinsters, meek and mousy.

4.1332 Another type of perceptual distortion is referred to as the halo effect -- the tendency to perceive a person who rates high in one respect as superior in all respects. The same type of distortion works also in reverse. We may believe that a person with an unpleasant voice, for instance, has nothing interesting or important to say.

4.14 How perception sets up defensive reactions to others.

4.141 To protect ourselves from threat and anxiety, we rely on a variety of so-called defense mechanisms. For the most part, these mechanisms lead us to some kind of perceptual distortion.

4.1411 A defense mechanism has been defined as an adjustment made, often unconsciously, either through action or the avoidance of action in order to escape recognition by oneself of personal qualities or motives which might lower self-esteem or heighten anxiety.[1]

4.1412 Perceptual defense allows us to avoid unpleasant or seemingly dangerous aspects of reality.

4.142 Projection is a common form of perceptual defense. It has been defined as a reaction in which we blame others for our own mistakes and shortcomings, or ascribe to others our own unacceptable motivations.[2]

4.143 Rationalization is another common perceptual defense. In rationalizing, we justify our behavior by attributing it to logical and admirable motivation. "By rationalizing, we can usually justify about everything we have done, are doing, or propose to do, and hence can alleviate the devaluating effects of failure, guilt, and irrational behavior."[3]

4.144 In repression, threatening thoughts are dealt with by excluding them from consciousness. It is an unconscious defense mechanism and thus more difficult to handle, as we cannot solve a problem if we do not see and understand it.

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[1]Ernest R. Hilgard and Richard C. Atkinson. Introduction to Psychology. 4th ed. (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World), 1967, p. 622.

[2]James C. Coleman. Psychology and Effective Behavior. (Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman, 1969), p. 223.

[3]Ibid., p. 222

4.145 Escapism and fantasy are other forms of defense mechanism.

4.15 Some of the factors that influence perception.

4.151 Perception is influenced by one's perceptual set: the framework or system of categories that the perceiver brings to the process of perception.

4.152 Status of the other person is a variable that often influences our judgments. Visibility of the traits we are judging is another important influence on our perception.

4.1521 Research has shown that we are often more accurate in our judgments of people who like us than of people who dislike us.

4.1522 The suggested explanation is that most people in our society do not freely express their dislike; thus it will be less visible.[1]

4.153 Our perception is influenced by our needs and goals, and by what is foremost in our minds at any given time.

4.154 The accuracy with which we perceive others is also influenced by the accessibility of other people. As Allport has pointed out, people differ greatly in their accessibility: some are given to self-disclosure, others to secretiveness. Some personalities are in their inherent structure relatively open, others enigmatic.[2]

4.16 How one's personal norms or standards are used to judge others.

4.161 Generally those characteristics in ourselves that we consider important we will tend to apply as standards in our judgments of others. If, for instance, a person is consistently punctual and takes a certain pride in being on time, he will tend to view others and rate them in terms of their punctuality.

4.162 Research has shown that our own characteristics tend to affect the characteristics we are likely to perceive in others.[3]

4.163 The person who accepts himself is more likely to be able to see favorable aspects of other people.

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[1]Timothy W. Costello, and Sheldon S. Zalkind, Psychology in Administration: A Research Orientation (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.:Prentice-Hall, 1963), p. 47.

[2]Gordon W. Allport, Pattern and Growth in Personality (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1961), p. 521.

[3]Sections 4.162 through 4.165 are based on Costello and Zalkind, op. cit., pp. 45-46.

4.164 If we like a person, we tend to perceive the ways that person resembles us more accurately than we do the ways in which he differs from us.

4.165 Accuracy in perceiving others is not a single skill that some people have and others do not. Rather the level of accuracy depends on how sensitive we are to differences among those we are judging.

4.17 The influence of perception in the work situation.

4.171 In the work situation, research has shown that people tend to perceive themselves in terms appropriate to their position in the organizational hierarchy.

4.1711 Porter's study of the self-perceptions of upper-level managers, first-line supervisors, and line workers illustrates this tendency.

4.1712 He found that first-line supervisors viewed themselves more conservative and cautious as compared with those above them in management and more careful and restrained compared with operative line workers.[1]

4.172 Likert has pointed out that in study after study it has been shown that how the supervisor perceives his subordinates has considerable influence on the attitudes and performance goals of the subordinates. Treating people as human beings rather than as cogs in a machine "is a variable highly related to the attitudes and motivation of the subordinate at every level in the organization."[2]

4.173 Each of us interprets interaction between ourselves and other members of the organization in the light of our own experience and expectations. From this basis, Likert proposes the following formula:

4.174 "The organizational structure and its manner of functioning must insure a maximum probability that in all interactions each of the individuals involved will, in the light of his background, experience, and expectations, view the interaction as supportive and one which contributes to his sense of personal worth."[3]

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[1]Lyman W. Porter. "Self-Perceptions of First-Level Supervisors Compared with Upper-Management Personnel and with Operative Line Workers," Journal of Applied Psychology, 43:183-186, June, 1959.

[2]Likert, op. cit., p. 187.

[3]Ibid., p. 191.

4.175 The supervisor must perceive subordinates as unique individuals, and must avoid categorical judgments and stereotyped views of them. What one employee perceives as supportive action on the part of his supervisor, another may view quite differently.

4.176 Increased accuracy in perception is a continual challenge to the supervisor; he must strive to perceive keenly and accurately both himself and others with whom he is working.[1]

[1]For further material on perception, see Enrichment Modules

4

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UNIT 4, SECTION 1

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Unit 4: Section 1

Allport, Floyd H. Theories of Perception and the Concept of Structure. New York: Wiley, 1955.

In this book the author presents an exposition and critical analysis of the major psychological theories of perception, pointing out their achievements and limitations. He is particularly interested in the structural implications of the various systems and attempts to conceptualize a dynamic structural theory of behavior.

Allport, Gordon W. The Nature of Prejudice. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1954.

A comprehensive, clearly-written analysis of prejudice.

_____. Pattern and Growth in Personality. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961.

Chapter 20 deals with person perception: openness of the other, first impressions, the ability to judge, qualifications of a good judge, sex differences, and other considerations of the perceptual processes.

Coleman, James C. Psychology and Effective Behavior. Glenview, Ill., Scott, Foresman, 1969.

Some common perceptual defenses, such as denial of reality, fantasy and projection, are explained on pp. 220-231. The relationship between perception and social competence is discussed briefly on pp. 418-423. Textbook approach to psychology.

Costello, Timothy W. and Sheldon S. Zalkind. Psychology in Administration: A Research Orientation. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1963.

The first part of this book deals with perceiving people and situations and includes discussion of: (1) nature of perceptual processes, (2) forming impressions of others, and (3) other interpersonal factors in perception. Throughout the authors relate the findings of behavioral science research to administrative practice.

Dember, William N. The Psychology of Perception. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1960.

Forgus, Ronald H. Perception: The Basic Process in Cognitive Development. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966.

The author defines perception as the process of information extraction, and focuses on different kinds of perception such as space perception, form identification, motion perception and event perception. Chapter 12 deals with social perception, motives and personality.

Haire, Mason. Psychology in Management. 2d. ed. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964.

In Chapter 4 on communication, Haire discusses some of the effects of perceptual defense on organizations. Chapter 1 on the nature of people also deals with perception.

_____. "Role-Perceptions in Labor-Management Relations: An Experimental Approach," Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 8:204-216, January, 1955.

Managers were asked to describe themselves and union men, and union men were asked to describe themselves and managers. It was found that the men were described to considerable extent on the basis of stereotypes associated with their social role, and that management and union men tend to interact on the basis of these stereotypes. An interesting study of the influence of social role on perception.

Hilgard, Ernest R. and Richard C. Atkinson. Introduction to Psychology. 4th ed. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1967.

A textbook approach to psychology. Chapters 8, 9, and 10 deal with perception.

Hochberg, Julian E. Perception. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1964.

An introductory discussion of perception which treats how we perceive simple physical phenomena, how we perceive the world, and social perception.

Likert, Rensis. "A Motivational Approach to a Modified Theory of Organization and Management," in Mason Haire, ed., Modern Organization

Theory. New York: Wiley, 1959, pp. 184-217.

Likert makes the point that an individual's reaction to any situation is always a function of the way he perceives it. Some of the implications of this for management are discussed here.

Maslow, Abraham H. Motivation and Personality. 2d. ed. New York: Harper, 1970.

Maslow is interested in the perception of healthy persons, particularly self-actualizing persons.

Porter, Lyman W. "Self-Perceptions of First-Level Supervisors Compared with Upper-Management Personnel and with Operative Line Workers," Journal of Applied Psychology, 43:183-186, June, 1959.

The study showed that first-line supervisors saw themselves as more conservative and cautious than upper levels of management and lower levels of line workers, thus reflecting their low status in the managerial hierarchy and the special problems it causes them.

Smith, H. C. "Sensitivity to People," in Hans Toch and Henry Clay Smith, eds., Social Perception: The Development of Interpersonal Impressions. Princeton, N. J.: Van Nostrand, 1968, pp. 10-19.

A discussion of how social perception occurs, how we form impressions of others.

Tagiuri, Renato. "Person Perception," in Gardner Lindzey and Elliot Aronson, eds., The Handbook of Social Psychology. 2d. ed. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1968, pp. 395-449.

A revision of the earlier article by Jerome S. Bruner and Renato Tagiuri, "The Perception of People," which appeared in the first edition (1954) of The Handbook of Social Psychology. The article explores the question: how does one come to have an impression of another person -- his traits, his intentions, his feelings? It includes discussion of recognition of emotions, the ability to judge others, process of knowing others, and current perspectives. Extensive bibliography.

Warr, Peter B. and Christopher Knapper. The Perception of People and Events. London, New York: Wiley, 1968.

The book focuses on the way people and events are judged, and is based on research findings of the authors. It includes a 38-page bibliography.

4 OBJECTIVES

UNIT 4
SECTION 2

4.2 Motivation theories in the work place.

4.21 To explore the question of why man works.

4.22 To review some earlier concepts of motivation in terms of McDougall's instincts, Murray's psychogenic needs, Tolman's purposivism, and Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

4.23 To examine some motivational determinants of effective job performance.

4.24 To examine and discover practical applications of Chris Argyris' theories of motivation in the work place.

4.25 To examine and discover practical applications of Douglas McGregor's theories of motivation in the work place.

4.26 To examine and discover practical applications of Rensis Likert's theories of motivation in the work place.

4.27 To examine and discover practical applications of Frederick Herzberg's theories of motivation in the work place.

4.28 To examine and discover practical applications of David C. McClelland's theories of motivation in the work place.

4.29 To examine and discover practical applications of Saul Gellerman's theories of motivation in the work place.

Unit 4: Section 2

Motivation Theories in the Work Place

4.2 Motivation theories and concepts

4.21 Why does man work?

4.211 It has been estimated that most adults in the United States spend one third to one half of their lives in work and work-related activity -- more time than they devote to any other activity.[1] For centuries, work has been essential for earning a living. Yet it now appears in this country that soon a sizeable portion of people may not need to work in order to make money. In an affluent society the meaning of work must be re-examined. Our views of work have changed considerably over the years as societal conditions too have changed, although earlier views are still much in evidence.

4.2111 The economic view of work. According to this view, man works to make money. He would not work if he had enough money to feed himself and his family and to provide for his other wants. Man works because he is paid for it. Taylor's scientific management was based on this concept of work.

4.2112 The moralist view, sometimes referred to as the Protestant work ethic. According to this view, man works because work is a duty and a virtue. He who does not work is considered lazy, shiftless, and shirking his duty.

4.2113 The social view. With the application of behavioral sciences to studies of work,

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[1]James C. Coleman. Psychology and Effective Behavior (Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman, 1969), p. 330.

beginning with the Hawthorne Studies in the late 1920's, it was found that money is not an exclusively effective motivator to optimize work behavior.

4.21131 The Hawthorne experiments called attention to the importance of social organization in the work place.

4.21132 "The environment is at once physical, chemical, biological, psychological, economic and sociological." Often the most important are the sociological properties of the work environment, the Hawthorne researchers believed, and they urged that management study, weigh, modify and use them.[1]

4.2114 The self-fulfillment view. Today it is more widely recognized that an individual's work can be a source of personal satisfaction and fultillment; it can provide him an opportunity to do something in which he believes.

4.21141 The self-fulfillment view of work implies that man works because he enjoys it. That work can be enjoyable is a relatively new concept.

4.21142 As John Gardner has observed: "The best-kept secret in America today is that people would rather work hard for something they believe in than enjoy a pampered idleness ... Every man knows that there is exhileration in intense effort applied toward a meaningful end."[2]

4.212 Motivation is generally considered a core problem of management in all types of organizations. The question of why man works is a fundamental issue that management must confront and attempt to understand in the light of our fast-changing society.

4.2121 Motivation has been defined as a general term referring to the regulation of need-satisfying and goal-seeking behavior.[3]

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[1]L. J. Henderson, T. N. Whitehead and Elton Mayo. "The Effects of the Social Environment," in Luther Gulick and L. Urwick, eds. Papers on the Science of Administration (New York: Columbia University, Institute of Public Administration, 1937), p. 158.

[2]John W. Gardner. Excellence: Can We Be Equal and Excellent Too? (New York: Harper and Row, 1961), p. 148.

[3]Ernest B. Hilgard and Richard C. Atkinson. Introduction to Psychology. 4th ed. (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1967), p. 630.

4.2122 "Motivation, as we commonly use the term, is our speculation about someone else's purpose, and we usually expect to find that purpose in some immediate and obvious goal such as money or security or prestige. Yet the particular goals that people seem to be striving for often turn out, on analysis, to be instruments for attaining another, more fundamental goal. Thus wealth, safety, status, and all the other kinds of goals that supposedly 'cause' behavior are only paraphenalia for attaining the ultimate purpose of any individual, which is to be himself."[1]

4.2123 What makes one man put forth his full effort on the job, and what makes another approach his work with indifference or resignation? Although we are a long way from being able to fully answer such questions, it is useful to look first at some earlier ideas of motivation concepts, for they provide an interesting perspective.

4.22 A review of some earlier concepts of motivation.

4.221 McDougall (1908) believed that all motivation could be explained in terms of instincts.

4.2211 As he himself said, "directly or indirectly the instincts are the prime movers of all human activity...The instinctive impulses determine the ends of all activities and supply the driving power by which all mental activities are sustained."[2]

4.2212 McDougall defined an instinct "as an inherited or innate psycho-physical disposition which determines its possessor to perceive, and to pay attention to, objects of a certain class, to experience an emotional excitement of a particular quality upon perceiving such an object, and to act in regard to it in a particular manner, or, at least, to experience an impulse to such action."[3]

4.2213 For McDougall, in order to understand the

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[1]Saul W. Gellerman. Motivation and Productivity. (New York: American Management Association, 1963), p. 290.

[2]William McDougall. An Introduction to Social Psychology. 20th ed. enlarged. (London, Methuen, 1926), p. 38.

[3]Ibid., p. 25

complexity of human motivation, one must first be able to distinguish and describe each of the principal human instincts. He attempted to do just this.

4.222 Murray (1930's) also believed it essential to classify human needs, and his classification influenced a great deal of later motivational theorizing. He listed 12 physiological needs (which he termed viscerogenic needs) and 28 psychogenic needs. He viewed the physiological needs as primary needs "engendered and stilled by characteristic periodic bodily events," and the psychogenic needs as those having to do with "mental or emotional satisfactions."[1]

4.2221 According to Murray the viscerogenic needs are man's basic needs, and the psychogenic needs are secondary, derived from the primary needs.

4.2222 Murray's classification resulted in a long and detailed list of needs. The value of such a long list may be questioned today, but it does serve the purpose of helping us to see the many kinds of behaviors a complete theory of human motivation must encompass.

4.223 Tolman's (1930's) concept of motivation was based on his extensive laboratory research with rats.[2]

4.2231 Calling himself a "purposive behaviorist," Tolman argued that a stimulus-response analysis was not sufficient to explain human or sub-human behavior.

4.2232 He believed that purpose (goal-seeking activity) and cognitive perception were essential elements of behavioral analysis. He emphasized that purpose and cognition were not "mentalistic" concepts, however, but could actually be observed in behavior.

4.224 Maslow's (1943) concept of motivation hinges on his theory of deficiency motives and being motives.[3]

4.2241 Deficiency motives (D-motives) are those lower on the Maslow hierarchy, aroused by

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[1]Henry A. Murray and others. Explorations in Personality. (New York: Oxford, 1938), p. 77.

[2]Edward Chace Tolman. Purposive Behavior in Animals and Men (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1932).

[3]Abraham H. Maslow. "A Theory of Human Motivation," Psychological Review, 50:370-396, July, 1943.

deficiency. They are urgent determiners of behavior when they are not satisfied. Once satisfied, however, a particular need becomes unimportant in the current dynamics of the individual.

4.2242 Being motives (B-motives) are higher motives in the sense that they are located higher on the hierarchy of needs. They come into play chiefly when the D-motives have been satisfied.

4.23 Motivational determinants of effective job performance. What affects motivation in the work place?

4.231 The nature of man.

4.2311 Individual differences vitally affect motivation in the work place. Each individual has his own needs that must be satisfied.

4.2312 An individual's needs vary in time. As one need is largely satisfied, another tends to emerge.

4.2313 Allport has emphasized that adult motivation must be viewed contemporaneously. What originally motivated a person to become interested in politics, for example, may have nothing to do with what motivates him to continue the interest today. Allport developed the concept of functional autonomy to explain this phenomenon of adult motivation.[1]

4.2314 Motivation is essentially an individual problem. It is therefore important that each employee be viewed as a whole person in the work situation.

4.2315 For the manager to be optimally effective, he must have a way of thinking about the nature of people which will enable him to bring realistic order out of the mass of observations of individual behavior he is continuously accumulating.

4.232 The nature of supervision.

4.2321 How the manager manages, his leadership style and the standards he sets -- all of these considerations have effect on employee motivation.

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[1] Gordon W. Allport. Pattern and Growth in Personality. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961), pp. 226-229.

4.2322 It is not so much what the manager does or how he does it, but how each employee perceives what the manager does that has important effects on employee motivation.

4.233 The nature of organizational decision making.

4.2331 There is some research evidence to indicate that including people in decision making results in their functioning more effectively in their work.

4.2332 There is also some evidence that under certain conditions, autocratic methods will result in greater productivity.

4.2333 The classic study of the importance of participation to motivation is the Coch and French study, which has been described at some length in Human Relations.[1]

4.234 The work group.

4.2341 The Hawthorne Studies showed the influence of the work group on the motivation of group members. As a result of these studies, management began to realize that productivity is tied to social interaction.

4.2342 The Hawthorne researchers considered the question: does high cohesiveness of a group result in greater productivity? Research findings tend to indicate little evidence to support the concept. It has generally been found that in addition to a sense of cohesiveness, group members must also be enthusiastic about the goals of the group if high productivity is to ensue.[2]

4.2343 Collaboration vs. competition must be considered in relation to the work group. Some have suggested that high productivity in the work groups is the result of competition. Others have stressed that the work group is most effective when members feel and act collaboratively.

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[1]Lester Coch and John R. P. French, "Overcoming Resistance to Change," Human Relations, 1:512-532, August, 1948.

[2]Timothy W. Costello and Sheldon S. Zalkind. Psychology in Administration: A Research Orientation (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1963), p. 444.

4.235 Job content.

4.2351 The content of a job or task may have considerable bearing on the strength of the worker's motivation.

4.2352 The job content is dictated to a considerable extent by the requirements of the organization and the requirements of technology.

4.24 Theories of motivation in the work place: Chris Argyris.

4.241 Argyris' chief concern is the effect of the organization on the worker.[1]

4.2411 His thesis, eloquently presented in his writings, is that there is a basic incongruency between the needs of mature individuals within our culture and the conventionally designed work setting.

4.2412 Most organizations have some sort of formal structure in which individuals must work if the organization's objectives are to be achieved.

4.2413 Jobs tend to create child-like roles for employees which frustrate their normal motivation for more adult roles. A common reaction is withdrawal of interest from the job.

4.2414 Employees want a sense of pride and accomplishment from their work, but instead they find their work is usually neither stimulating nor dignified.

4.2415 The results of this incongruency are frustration, failure, conflict and short-term perspectives. The nature of the formal organization causes workers to experience competition, rivalry, and inter-subordinate hostility. In addition, it causes them to focus on parts rather than the whole, a circular process which increases the dependence of subordinates.

4.2416 Both the organization and the employees suffer from the basic incongruency.

4.242 Argyris' conceptualization of human personality.

4.2421 Personality is thought of as "an organization of parts where the parts maintain the whole and

[1]Sections 4.241 through 4.2444 are based on Chris Argyris. "The Individual and the Organization: Some Problems of Mutual Adjustment," Administrative Science Quarterly, 2:1-24, June, 1957.

the whole maintains the parts.[1]

4.2422 The individual is constantly seeking internal balance -- adjustment, and external balance--adaptation.

4.2423 The individual is propelled by psychological energy as well as physical energy.

4.2424 Personality is located within the needs system and is expressed through abilities.

4.2425 The personality organization may be called "self." Self colors all an individual's experiences, thereby causing him to live in a "private world."

4.2426 Self is capable of defending (maintaining) itself against all types of threats.

4.2427 The self in our culture can be viewed as developing along a continuum toward self-actualization. That is, the growth of the individual can be measured along a multi-dimensional process, the basic dimensions of which are:

4.24271 Development toward a state of increasing activity -- self-determination.

4.24272 Development from a state of dependency to a state of relative independence.

4.24273 Development of the capacity to behave in many ways -- flexibility.

4.24274 Development of more and deeper interests.

4.24275 Development toward longer-term perspectives. Adult behavior is more affected than childhood behavior by the past and the future.

4.24276 Development from being subordinate to equal and/or superordinate in relation to peers.

4.24277 Growing awareness of self; development of feelings of integrity and self-worth.

4.243 The individual's frustration within the organization is caused by three major variables: the formal organization (including technological adaptations); directive

[1] Ibid., p. 3

leadership; and managerial controls.

4.244 Resistance on the part of the worker to these variables is shown by such activities as:

4.2441 Leaving the situation (absenteeism, withdrawal, turnover).

4.2442 Climbing the organizational ladder.

4.2443 Becoming defensive (daydreaming, aggression, grievances, regression, projection, low sense of self-worth).

4.2444 Becoming apathetic, disinterested, non-ego-involved.

4.2445 Creating informal groups to sanction the defense reactions; formalizing informal groups.

4.2446 De-emphasizing the importance of self-growth, creativity and actualization, while emphasizing the importance of material factors.

4.2447 Accepting this emphasis on the importance of material factors and passing it on to one's children.

4.245 It is Argyris' hypothesis that the basic incongruence between individual and organization can be the foundation for increasing the effectiveness of both.[1]

4.246 Exploring possible combinations of individual and organizational needs to find the best possible mix, Argyris defines the essential properties of any organization and then uses them to build a model based on six dimensions in terms of which the organization's effectiveness can be measured.[2]

4.2461 He bases the model on the following essential properties of any social organism:

4.24611 The organization is characterized by a patterning of parts.

4.24612 The whole is maintained through the interrelatedness of all the parts.

4.24613 The organization achieves goals or objectives.

4.24614 The parts and their interrelationships change to cope with and adapt to new stimuli influencing the internal organization.

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[1]Chris Argyris. Integrating the Individual and the Organization (New York: Wiley, 1964), p. 7.

[2]Ibid., pp. 146-163

4.24615 The organization has sufficient control over its environment to maintain its own discreteness.

4.2462 Each of these essential properties of organization implies certain conditions. For example, the first property assumes that instead of a plurality of parts, an organization is characterized by a patterning of parts. Instead of the whole being created or directed by the actions of one part, it is created through the interrelationship of the parts.

4.2463 This leads to the possibility that each property may be conceptualized as a dimension. One end of each dimension would be a point of maximum possible expression of the property (for example, plurality), and on the other end would be a point of maximum possible expression of the opposite situation (for example, patterning).

4.24631 Each dimension is seen as mutually dependent on the others, so that if the organization changed along one dimension it would also change with respect to all the others.

4.24632 The model can be used to plot a profile of an organization.

4.247 Argyris specifies three core objectives which any organization must fulfill if it is to exist. These are: achieving objectives, maintaining internal balance within the system, and adapting to the environment.[1]

4.248 Argyris' experiments to find solutions to incongruency between needs of individuals and organizations have emphasized:

4.2481 Job enlargement.[2]

4.24811 The number of employees who can be successfully motivated by upgrading their responsibilities is much larger than most managers would suspect.

4.24812 Making the job the central focus of the employee's efforts, imagination, creativity, and ambitions is important because it is on the job that the worker experiences his major

[1]Ibid., p. 315

[2]Chris Argyris. Personality and Organization (New York, Harper, 1957), p. 177.

satisfactions.

4.2482 Improvement of interpersonal relationships -- that is, the characteristic ways people have of perceiving and dealing with each other.

4.24821 Argyris believes it is important that people develop ways of improving "interpersonal competence."

4.24822 The chief method he has experimented with has been laboratory training (t-groups).

4.2483 Use of a staff training specialist.[1]

4.24831 The trainer can help people in the organization to define their own programs and their own objectives.

4.24832 Instead of directing, he focuses on serving the group, helping individuals to bring out hidden feelings, summarizing, defending others' needs to themselves, keeping the program within the limits of reality.

4.24833 The staff training specialist must continually strive to help those he is working with to become independent of him.

4.2484 Reality-centered leadership.[2]

4.24841 Leadership should develop along a whole range of patterns.

4.24842 Effective leadership varies with the situation as well as with the personalities of those involved.

4.24843 When a leader is reality-centered, he is able to diagnose any given administrative situation from the point of view of all involved including himself.

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[1]Ibid., pp. 227-228.

[2]Argyris, 1964, op. cit., pp. 214-215.

4.25 Theories of motivation in the work place: Douglas McGregor

4.251 McGregor stresses the importance of the relationship between management theory and the manager's behavior. "Every managerial act rests on theory."[1]

4.2511 Theory and practice are inseparable. "It is impossible to have more or less adequate theoretical assumptions; it is not possible to reach a managerial decision or take a managerial action uninfluenced by assumptions, whether adequate or not."[2]

4.2512 McGregor argues that theories about management, whether they are spelled out or not, have a profound effect on the relationships that management has with employees and even on the future of management itself.

4.2513 When he wrote The Human Side of Enterprise (1960), McGregor was deeply concerned about the need for managers to take a realistic, scientific, and humanistic point of view toward the management of human effort.

4.25131 His major thesis concerns human nature. Man is basically an active, potentially creative, autonomous, growing organism, and much of his dysfunctional behavior in organizational settings is the result of the environment's rules, rewards, and management styles rather than an outgrowth of man's basic character.

4.25132 McGregor proposed a set of assumptions about human nature which he labelled Theory Y, and he shows how managerial actions predicated on Theory Y assumptions will be very different from those predicated on traditional management assumptions of what workers are like. McGregor refers to traditional

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[1]Douglas McGregor. The Human Side of Enterprise (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960), p. 6.

[2]Ibid., p. 7.

assumptions as Theory X, partly to avoiding indicating whether they are good or bad, and partly for convenience in contrasting with his Theory Y.

4.252 Theory X and Theory Y.[1]

4.2521 Theory X assumes that:

4.25211 Man does not like to work and will try to avoid it; he works only to seek security.

4.25212 The average man would rather be told what to do than to think for himself. Man prefers to be directed and has little ambition.

4.25213 Therefore, the average man must be forced, controlled and clearly directed in his work. Some kind of threat has to be held over his head to make sure he works.

4.2522 Theory Y holds that:

4.25221 All people do not inherently dislike work, but they develop attitudes toward work based on their experiences with it. Theory Y assumes that man considers work as natural as leisure.

4.25222 While authoritarian methods of management can be effective in getting things done, they are not the only effective methods. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control if his ego and self-actualization needs are met.

4.25223 Man will use imagination and ingenuity when he is self-directed and self-controlled and not externally controlled by superiors.

4.25224 People select goals for themselves if they see the possibility of some kind of reward, be it material or purely psychological, and once they have selected a goal they will pursue it at least as vigorously as they would if their superiors were trying to pressure them into doing the same thing.

4.25225 Under the right conditions, people do not shun responsibility but seek it.

4.2523 Relation of Theory X to Theory Y.

4.25231 Theory Y is a plea for flexibility in management practices; it aims at a true integration of the individual's goals with those of the

[1]Ibid., pp. 33-76.

organization, rather than subjugation of one by the other.

4.25232 In the traditional organization, McGregor felt the contract between employer and employee usually meant the acceptance of external control in exchange for money and other rewards. He felt that control often set the stage for conflict in the work place and wasted the potentialities of both worker and organization.

4.25233 McGregor firmly believed that when people are positively motivated they can actually be much more cooperative and efficient without tight controls than they can be with them. He maintained that tight controls were not necessary to keep people in line or to prevent massive inefficiency.

4.25234 McGregor was not advocating unregulated work, but self-regulated work. Theory Y is an invitation to innovation,not an invitation to disorder.

4.25235 Theory Y does not deny the need for authority, but it recognizes authority as merely one of several methods of managerial control. Authority is seen as appropriate some, but not all, of the time.

4.25236 Authority may be called for when the external pressures on management are urgent, or when the worker is not likely to exert the necessary self-discipline, but according to Theory Y authority is an inappropriate management tool when employees feel committed to attaining the organization's objectives.

4.2524 The manager's job under Theory Y.

4.25241 The manager must resolve the problem of how to optimally integrate the technical and human resources in the organization, and, at the same time, so manage the working arrangements and work relationships so that people's needs for self-worth, growth and satisfaction are significantly met in the organization.

4.25242 The real task of management under Theory Y is to make the job the principal factor on which increased competence, self-control, and a sense of accomplishment can occur.

4.25243 Ultimate authority does rest on the manager

and he therefore has veto power; according to Theory Y assumptions, he should exercise it only in cases of extreme necessity.

4.25244 Managers must have a great deal of faith in the potential of their workers; the manager must learn to make people feel free to decide things for themselves. Often their decisions will not be the same as his.

4.25245 In effect, the manager has to use his personality as an instrument for developing other people's personalities.

4.25246 The manager substitutes guidance for dominance.

4.26 Theories of motivation in the work place: Rensis Likert

4.261 Likert's research has centered on organizational theory and practice, especially the characteristics and variables that distinguish four types of management systems which he has identified as:[1]

4.2611 Exploitive authoritative (System 1)

4.26111 This system is characterized by an arbitrary coercive, highly authoritarian management style seldom encountered any longer in pure form.

4.26112 Leadership has no confidence or trust in subordinates.

4.26113 Subordinates are not involved at all in decision making.

4.26114 Goal setting is accomplished by issuing orders from the top.

4.26115 Under this system of management informal organization flourishes, opposing the goals of the formal organization.

4.26116 Productivity is mediocre.

4.2612 Benevolent authoritative (System 2)

4.26121 Likert has found this pattern to be quite prevalent in organizations today, and throughout his work he contrasts it with System 4.

4.26122 Leadership has condescending confidence and trust in employees, as in the relationship between a master and

[1]Rensis Likert. The Human Organization (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967), pp. 14-24.

a servant.

4.26123 Subordinates are never involved in decision making, but occasionally they are consulted.

4.26124 Goal setting is accomplished by issuing orders from the top, and the employees may or may not have opportunity to comment.

4.26125 Informal organization is usually present and resisting formal organization goals at least in part.

4.2613 Consultative (System 3)

4.26131 This represents an intermediate stage of management, between Systems 2 and 4.

4.26132 Leadership has substantial but not complete confidence and trust in employees, but still wishes to keep control of decisions.

4.26133 Subordinates are usually consulted, but are not ordinarily involved in decision making.

4.26134 Goals are set or orders issued after discussion with subordinates about problems and planned action.

4.26135 Informal organization may be present, and may either support or partially resist goals of the formal organization.

4.26136 Productivity is good.

4.2614 Participative group (System 4)

4.26141 This system of management is based on teamwork, mutual confidence, trust, and a genuine respect for the individuals within the organization. In pure form it is relatively rare, but Likert feels the future belongs with organizations that are practicing or can convert to a management style approximately System 4.

4.26142 Leadership has complete confidence and trust in all employees.

4.26143 Subordinates are fully involved in all decisions relating to their work.

4.26144 Except in emergencies, goals are usually established by means of group participation.

4.26145 Informal and formal organization are one and the same; hence all social forces support efforts to achieve the organization's goals.

4.26146 Productivity is excellent. Likert has found System 4 the most productive over a long time span.

4.262 The basic concepts of System 4.

4.2621 The integrating principle.[1] Management must strive to have interactions between members of the organization of such nature that each member of the organization feels confident in his potentialities and believes that his abilities are being well used.

4.26211 Research on personality development has shown that subordinates react favorably to experiences which they feel are supportive and contribute to their sense of personal worth.

4.26212 Managers therefore must use this principle in developing highly motivated cooperative organizations.

4.26213 The challenge for management is to see that each employee, in the light of his background, values, desires, and expectations, will view his experience with management as supportive and contributing to his sense of personal worth and importance.

4.2622 The central role of the work group in decision making and supervision.[2] (A work group is defined as a superior and all subordinates who report to him.)

4.26221 At each hierarchical level, all subordinates in a work group who would be affected by the outcome of a decision are involved in making the decision.

4.26222 It is essential that the group method of decision making and supervision not be confused with committees which never reach any decisions or committees that are wishy-washy. In the work group, decisions can be reached promptly, clearcut responsibilities established, and tasks performed rapidly and productively.

4.26223 The group's capacity for effective problem solving is maintained by examining and dealing with group processes when necessary.

4.26224 The group method of supervision holds the supervisor fully responsible for the equity of all decisions and their implementation.

4.26225 The superior is responsible for building his

[1]Rensis Likert. New Patterns of Management (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961), pp. 102-103.

[2]Likert, 1967, op. cit., pp. 49-51.

subordinates into a group that makes the best possible decisions and carries them out well.

4.26226 System 4 depends on an overlapping group structure, with each work group linked to the rest of the organization by means of persons who are members of more than one group. The individuals holding overlapping group memberships Likert refers to as linking pins.

4.2623 High performance aspirations.[1]

4.26231 Superiors, as well as every other member of the organization, should have high performance aspirations.

4.26232 High performance goals should not be imposed on employees. There must be a mechanism through which they can help set high-level goals in accordance with their own requirements and needs. System 4 provides such a mechanism through its use of group decision making and an overlapping group structure.

4.26233 In this way System 4 organizations are able to set objectives which represent optimum integration of the needs and desires of both members of the organization and those outside who are served by the organization.

4.263 Likert's use of causal, intervening, and end-result variables.[2]

4.2631 Causal variables.

4.26311 These are independent variables which determine the course of developments within an organization and the results achieved.

4.26312 They include only those independent variables which can be altered or changed by the organization; i.e., they are neither fixed not controlled by external circumstances.

4.26313 Causal variables include the structure of the organization and management's policies, decisions, leadership strategies, skills, and behavior.

4.26314 When causal variables are changed, they cause changes in other variables, but they are not as a rule directly influenced by other variables.

4.26315 When an organization is seeking to make a

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[1]Ibid., pp. 51-52.

[2]Ibid., pp. 26-29, 128-145.

shift toward System 4, its efforts to change should first be focused on the causal variables, especially on: applying the principle of supportive relationships, handling work problems by group decision making, structuring the organization in terms of multiple overlapping groups, and setting high performance goals.

4.2632 Intervening variables.

4.26321 These reflect the internal state and health of the organization.

4.26322 They include such variables as loyalties, attitudes, motivations, performance goals, perceptions of all members and their collective capacity for effective interaction, communication and decision making.

4.2633 End-result variables.

4.26331 These are the dependent variables.

4.26332 They reflect the achievements of the organization, and include service rendered, costs, productivity, losses, etc.

4.264 The importance of a systems approach to management.[1]

4.2641 Likert stresses that an organization's management system must have compatible component parts if it is to function effectively. A systems approach must be used and system integrity maintained in organizational change.

4.26411 Any change in the management system should start by changing first the most influential causal variables.

4.26412 Systematic plans are required to modify in coordinated steps all of the operating procedures which now anchor the organization firmly to its present management system.

4.2642 Management training must be based on a single system. Development programs will not be effective if their content is derived from more than one system of management.

4.26421 Research shows that few managers can achieve effective performance when they attempt to use principles and procedures which flagrantly disregard the systems approach.

4.26422 A violation of the systems approach in a management development course would be the inclusion of principles and procedures drawn

[1] Ibid., pp. 116-127.

from more than one system of management.

4.26423 Training to bring about cognitive, attitudinal and skill changes must be compatible with the system of management in which the training is to be used. For example, managerial grid training is essentially System 4 in character and is incompatible with System 2. If this kind of training is given, all components of the system should reflect System 4 philosophy and practices; otherwise the organization will not be making use of the training and will fail to benefit fully from it.

4.27 Theories of motivation in the work place: Frederick Herzberg.

4.271 Herzberg's basic thesis is that the factors involved in producing job satisfaction and high motivation are separate and distinct from the factors leading to job dissatisfaction.[1]

4.2711 Job satisfaction is not the opposite of job dissatisfaction. Two different sets of needs are involved.

4.2712 The opposite of job satisfaction is no job satisfaction, and similarly the opposite of job dissatisfaction is no job dissatisfaction.

4.2713 The distinction is more than a play on words. It is the basis of Herzberg's dual theory of motivation.

4.272 The classical approach to motivation focuses on the environment in which the employee works, the circumstances that surround him (nice office, well-lighted, air conditioned) and the things he is given in exchange for work (status, money).

4.2721 Management must continually be concerned about environmental factors.

4.2722 But environmental factors are not enough to stimulate effective motivation on the part of the employees.

4.273 According to Herzberg, effective motivation is dependent on another set of factors -- experiences that are inherent in the work itself.

4.2731 The potential of the work itself serving as a motivator has been obscured in the past because most jobs were not very stimulating and it was assumed they could not be changed. External pressure was applied to get people to do them.

4.2732 When a job provides opportunities for personal satisfaction and growth, a powerful new motivating force is introduced.

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[1] Frederick Herzberg. "One More Time: How Do You Motivate Employees?" Harvard Business Review, 46:56, January-February, 1968. Section 4.27 is based primarily on this article, pp. 53-61.

4.274 Herzberg distinguishes between motivators and hygiene factors.

4.2741 The motivators (content factors) are based on the job itself: on doing the job, liking it, success in doing the job, recognition, moving upward as an indication of professional growth.

4.27411 Herzberg uses the term motivation to describe feelings of accomplishment, satisfaction, professional growth, etc., that are experienced on the job.

4.27412 The motivators or growth factors that are intrinsic to the job are: the work itself, achievement, recognition for achievement, responsibility, growth, advancement (not only in terms of promotion but also includes opportunities to grow and develop in the present job).

4.2742 The hygiene factors (context factors) include all those management has traditionally tried to manipulate to achieve motivation. This traditional approach on the part of management consisted of preventive actions taken to remove sources of dissatisfaction in the work environment.

4.27421 Herzberg has defined the hygiene factors as: administration, company policy, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary, status, security.

4.27422 The hygiene factors are extrinsic to the job. Solving hygiene needs is a never ending process. The feeling of deficiency recurs. Employees continually expect more benefits from employers.

4.27423 If hygiene factors are not taken care of, they will cause inefficiency at least. But no matter how well these factors are taken care of, they will not sustain a higher than usual level of efficiency; they will not serve as motivators.

4.275 An evaluation of Herzberg's theory. In commenting on it, McGregor states that Herzberg's theory has profound implications for managerial strategy:

"The factors labeled 'dissatisfiers' operate to produce both low performance and negative attitudes when they are not equitably administered. However, when employees feel they are fairly rewarded with respect to these variables, increasing the rewards further has only a modest effect on either satisfaction

or performance. The suggestion is that these 'extrinsic' (controlled from without the individual) rewards are highly important, but primarily in a negative sense. What they will produce as motivators is essentially a fair day's work for a fair day's pay (along with negative side effects if they are not equitably administered), and not much more...

"The 'satisfiers,' on the other hand, are associated with high satisfaction, high motivation, high performance. The 'work itself' variable refers to the way the job is structured. Does it offer the individual opportunity to use his training, his skill, his talents? Or does it limit him, force him to operate below his level of competence?"[1]

4.276 Job enrichment.

4.2761 Herzberg suggests job enrichment as a means of introducing more effective motivation into jobs.

4.2762 He distinguishes between job enrichment and job enlargement.

4.27621 Job enrichment refers to enriching the job. It provides the opportunity for the employee's psychological growth.

4.27622 Job enlargement merely makes the job structurally larger.

4.27623 Herzberg has referred to job enlargement as horizontal job loading, and job enrichment as vertical loading (or providing motivator factors).

4.27624 Job enlargement merely enlarges the meaninglessness of the job; it consists of adding another meaningless task to the existing one.

4.27625 Job rotation is often used as a substitute for job enrichment, and Herzberg points out the fallacy of rotating the assignments of jobs that need to be enriched.

4.2763 Through job enrichment Herzberg believes that effective utilization can be made of personnel; their potential can be tapped, and they can have opportunities for creative work.

4.2764 Herzberg sums up the argument for job enrichment forcefully and simply: "If you have someone on a job,

[1]Douglas McGregor. Leadership and Motivation. Essays of Douglas McGregor edited by Warren G. Bennis and Edgar H. Schein. (Cambridge, Mass.: MIT, 1966), pp. 257-259.

use him. If you can't use him on the job, get rid of him, either via automation, or by selecting someone with lesser ability. If you can't use him and you can't get rid of him, you will have a motivation problem."[1]

4.28 Theories of motivation in the work place: David C. McClelland.

4.281 McClelland has concentrated his research on one particular kind of motivation, which he has called achievement motivation.[2]

4.2811 According to McClelland, only about 10 percent of the U. S. population is strongly motivated for achievement.

4.2812 He gives achievement motivation a special and precise definition. The most convincing sign of strong achievement motivation is the tendency on the part of a person to think about ways to accomplish something difficult and significant during times when he is not being required to think about anything in particular, during idle moments.

4.2813 An individual with strong achievement motivation is likely to surpass the accomplishments of an equally able but less strongly motivated person.

4.2814 McClelland sees achievement related to certain kinds of entrepreneurial performance, and he finds that achievers are particularly successful in the occupations of sales and marketing, management, and independent businesses.

4.282 Characteristics of the self-motivated achiever.

4.2821 He likes to set his own goals, and likes to be fully responsible for attaining them if possible. If he wins, he wants the credit; if he loses, he accepts the blame.

4.2822 The achiever tries to avoid extreme difficulties in selecting goals. He carefully selects the goals he thinks he can attain.

4.2823 As the achiever tends to work at peak efficiency, monetary rewards do not make him work harder, but additional income serves as a kind of feedback, a way of measuring his success. For this reason, monetary incentive is important to him.

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[1] Herzberg, op. cit., p. 62

[2] David C. McClelland and others. The Achievement Motive. (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953)

4.283 McClelland believes that there is untapped achievement motivation in most organizations which could be utilized by building achivement characteristics into more jobs by: assigning more personal responsibility, allowing individual participation in the selection of targets, setting moderate goals, and providing fast specific feedback on the results the individual is attaining.

4.284 McClelland believes that standard supervisory practices are largely inappropriate for the achiever.

4.2841 Work goals should not be imposed on the achiever; he wants to set his own.

4.2842 Highly specific directions and controls are unnecessary; general guidance and occasional follow-up will be more effective.

4.2843 If there is not automatic feedback within the job, detailed appraisals should be provided frequently.

4.285 McClelland has experimented with teaching people to acquire a need for achievement by means of what he calls a motive development program, a training program to bring about motive change. He has set forth several propositions based on this research.[1]

4.2851 The more reasons an individual has in advance to believe that he can, will, or should develop a motive, the more educational attempts designed to develop that motive are likely to succeed.

4.2852 The more an individual perceives that developing a motive is consistent with the demands of reality (and reason), the more educational attempts designed to develop that motive are likely to succeed.

4.2853 The more thoroughly an individual develops and clearly conceptualizes the associative network defining the motive, the more likely he is to develop the motive.

4.2854 The more an individual can link the newly developed network to related actions, the more the change in both thought and actions is likely to occur and endure.

4.2855 The more the individual can link the newly conceptualized motive to events in his everyday life, the more likely the motive complex will influence his thoughts and actions outside the training experience.

4.2856 The more an individual can perceive and experience the newly conceptualized motive as an improvement in his self-image, the more the motive is likely to influence his future thoughts and actions.

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[1]Sections 4.285 and 4.286 are based on David C. McClelland, "Toward a Theory of Motive Acquisition," American Psychologist, 20:321-333, May, 1965.

4.2857 The more an individual can perceive and experience concrete goals in life related to the newly formed motive, and the more he keeps a record of his progress toward achieving his goals, the more the newly formed motive is likely to influence his future thoughts and actions.

4.286 McClelland has discovered that changes in motives are more likely to occur when the setting dramatizes the importance of self-study and lifts it out of the routine of everyday life. Likewise, changes are more likely to occur and persist if the new motive is a sign of membership in a new reference group.

4.29 Theories of motivation in the work place: Saul W. Gellerman.

4.291 Gellerman's main emphasis has been on showing managers and organizations how behavioral science research can help them. He stresses the fact that behavioral research has provided managers with a more realistic way of analyzing what happens inside organizations than has ever before been available.[1]

4.2911 The basic strategy of behavioral science is to question the assumptions on which managerial practices are based and to test them against reality.

4.2912 According to Gellerman, the skepticism of the behavioral scientist in testing these assumptions has already paid off significantly for managers and behavioral scientists alike.

4.292 Gellerman believes there is nothing inevitable about the lack of effective work motivation; rather, it is the result of poor, antiquated, or unrealistic management practices. Behavioral science, he stresses, has already provided helpful insights in the area of motivation.

4.2921 Motivational problems according to Gellerman are more likely due to the way the organization is managed than to unwillingness of the employee to work hard.

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[1]Saul W. Gellerman. Management by Motivation (New York: American Management Association, 1968), p. 17.

4.2922 He feels that modern management tends to over-manage, define jobs too closely and make too many decisions for the worker.

4.293 In order to understand the reasons a worker acts in a given manner, the manager must learn to look at the worker's environment the way the worker does.

4.2931 To understand another person's attitudes does not require agreement with him, but it does require the possibility that one's own ideas may have to be re-examined.

4.2932 Often it is easier to ignore the fact that another person almost certainly believes his own attitudes are justified. It is easier to say he is motivated by greed or hate, for to understand his true motivation might require altering one's own ideas, "and for many people this is too disquieting a prospect to be risked."

4.2933 Gellerman suggests that managers must be willing to re-examine and often to change their own ideas. They must learn to recognize that they are much more capable of changing their own ideas than of changing those of the people who work for them.

4.2934 Therefore, managers should concentrate on improving their own effectiveness rather than persuading employees to improve theirs.[1]

4.294 Gellerman feels that most people regard their own behavior as sensible and justifiable.

4.2941 One's motivation for action, positive or negative, is a product of the world he thinks he lives in.

4.2942 People are motivated not so much by what other people want them to do as by their own desire to get along as best they can in the world they inhabit.

4.2943 Gellerman refers to this tendency as the principle of psychological advantage, which means that people tend to seek the values they consider important to the extent they believe it is safe and possible for them to do so.[2]

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[1]Saul W. Gellerman. Motivation and Productivity (New York: American Management Association, 1963), pp. 292-293.

[2]Ibid., pp. 199-203.

4.295 Behavioral science research has not produced a simple list of do's and don'ts for managers; rather, it has shown that the process of management is much too complex to be handled effectively by approaches that do not require analysis and creativity on the part of the manager.[1]

4.2951 It is up to the individual manager to discover the specific problems of motivation with which he is faced at a given time. He must take action that deals with causes, not just symptoms.

4.2952 Gellerman cites three broad prescriptions that he feels have positive motivational effect. They should be used selectively.

4.29521 Stretching.[2] This refers to assigning tasks that are somewhat more demanding than the manager thinks the employee can handle. It increases the possibility that the employees will experience the satisfaction of achievement and will develop a desire for more.

4.29522 Management by objectives.

4.295221 This refers to giving the employee rather broad discretion over the details of how he will handle his work to meet precisely defined targets providing he stays within budget limitations.

4.295222 Management by objectives is likely to increase the employee's commitment to his work, because the results he achieves become more a measurement of his own abilities than of the manager's.

4.29523 Participation. This is the general strategy of seeking employee comments and suggestions before decisions are made affecting their work. Even if their suggestions are not accepted, the fact that they have been consulted is likely to make management decision making more understandable to employees and less

[1] Gellerman, 1968, op. cit., p. 18.

[2] Ibid., p. 107.

4.296 Selection as an aspect of motivation is emphasized by Gellerman. "The aspect of motivation over which most organizations can exercise the greatest control, yet which is typically left largely to chance, is the selection of their people."[1]

4.2961 A great deal of an individual's potential motivation is already inherent in him when he is hired. In this sense, Gellerman says "motivation can be hired."

4.2962 The quality of motivation that appears in a person's work is essentially elicited from him by his job.

4.2963 "The individual is his own reservoir of whatever motivation he is capable of; he may draw upon it extravagantly or sparingly, but in any case he derives it from within himself and not from the people who pay his wages."[2]

4.2964 Selection is important because it determines the kind and caliber of motivation that will be available to the organization.

4.2965 Gellerman emphasizes the importance of the logic of selection rather than the techniques of selection.

4.29651 Basically selection is an attempt to predict an individual's job performance in a given work environment.

4.29652 Selection is the relating of one set of variables (the various ways of measuring an applicant) to another set of variables (the various ways in which an individual's performance might be rated if he were put to work in a particular job).

4.29653 Successful selection systems depend on the diversity of available candidates and on the extent to which the system measures factors actually related to job performance.

4.2966 Fallacious assumptions that jeopardize a selection system.[3]

4.29661 The hero fallacy -- the idea that somewhere someone fits the job perfectly.

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[1]Ibid., p. 57.
[2]Ibid., p. 58.
[3]Ibid., pp. 79-87.

4.29662 The descriptive fallacy -- the idea that if an individual's qualities can be described precisely and completely enough, he can be matched against the requirements of a job, and a decision can then be made whether or not he should be given a specific job.

4.29663 The permanence fallacy -- the idea that once a man has been evaluated by the selection system, then everything that needs to be known about him in all future selection decisions has been established.

4.29664 The fallacy of determinism -- the idea that a person's success or failure in a given job is wholly determined by his possession of certain qualities which can be adequately assessed at the time of initial selection.

4.297 Problems faced by an organization in fostering a growth-producing environment.

4.2971 Programs must be established to encourage the development of employees.

4.2972 Employees must be convinced that a real shift is being made from the status quo toward a growth-producing environment, and that the organization intends to follow through.

4.2973 A convincing commitment to personal growth as an organizational goal must come from top management.

4

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UNIT 4, SECTION 2

Bibliography

Unit 4, Section 2

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Some contrasting views of motivation are briefly presented beginning on p. 84, but motivation is discussed in more detail in Chs. 9-10. Allport proposes requirements for an adequate theory of motivation and points out weaknesses in contributions of earlier theorists such as McDougall and Freud. He also discusses at some length his own concept of functional autonomy.

Argyris, Chris. "The Individual and the Organization," Administrative Science Quarterly, 2:1-24, June, 1957.

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Unit 4, Section 2: Bibliography

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"Someone has said that the last act of a dying organization is to get out a new and enlarged edition of the rule book." Gardner warns against managerial techniques becoming the means of processing human beings. Not all people are creative but there are many kinds of creativity and many more individuals could realize creative potential which would contribute to the success of an organization, if roadblocks were removed. This book is not directed especially to managers but the entire discussion is of value to them.

Gellerman, Saul W. Management by Motivation. New York: American Management Association, 1968.

A follow-up of his earlier book, Motivation and Productivity, in which he explained motivational theory, Gellerman here applies motivation theory to actual management problems. His aim is to help managers look at problems the way the behavioral scientist does. Of particular interest is a section in which he concentrates on the selection process, one "of the most powerful and yet most misunderstood sources of leverage upon the motivation that actually becomes available to an organization."

_____. Motivation and Productivity. New York: American Management Association, 1963.

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A high level of motivation throughout the organization and an efficient system to coordinate and focus the efforts of individuals within the organization -- these are necessities if the goals of the organization are to be achieved. On this basis Likert derives a form of organizational structure relying on overlapping groups, a more complex form of organization which, he says, demands more learning, understanding and practice than is now usually expected of workers, supervisors, and managers.

_____. New Patterns of Management. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961.

Here Likert first presented his four systems of management: the exploitive authoritative, the benevolent authoritative, the consultative, and the participative. They are described in detail,

although the material has been up-dated on the basis of more research in his later book, The Human Organization.

Livingston, J. Sterling. "Pygmalion in Management," Harvard Business Review, 47:81-89, July-August, 1969.

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such men as Maslow, Herzberg and Myers, they show how the meaningful-work approach to motivation has been used at Texas Instruments Inc. Their thesis is that "the motivated worker characteristically can assume a part of the managerial functions associated with his job; he can share in the planning, organizing and controlling of the work he does."

Roethlisberger, Fritz J., and William J. Dickson. Management and the Worker. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard, 1939.

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Sterner, Frank M. "Motivate -- Don't Manipulate," Personnel Journal, 48:623-627, August, 1969.

Every manager should ask himself whether he has been motivating or manipulating his subordinates. Manipulation is defined as "an intent on the part of a manager to deceive, take advantage of, control or use people to his own advantage." On the other hand, motivation "refers to the opposite of this: that is, a constructive managerial approach which involves working with people for their own and the organization's benefit." The author reviews recent research findings in motivation theory and suggests ways and means of motivation open to the manager.

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The primary purpose of this book is to answer the question: what motivates and deters librarians in their participation in professional development activities? Its contents also identify the activities that librarians themselves consider most important for their professional growth, and present a profile showing what librarians are actually doing in this area. A research-based study which deals specifically with the relation of motivation to professional development.

Surace, Cecily J. The Human Side of Libraries. Santa Monica: Rand Corporation, January, 1969. (ED 025 297)

This paper (originally given as a short course on fundamentals of company library management for the American Management Association) puts special emphasis on performance standards and employee evaluation. The author points out that work measurement and job description methods for establishing standards and evaluating employees are being discarded in favor of management by objectives. Performance appraisal by results is also discussed with examples to show that this appraisal technique is well suited to personnel and departmental management in special libraries.

Sutermeister, Robert A., ed. People and Productivity. 2d. ed. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1969.

This book is organized around a comprehensive diagram which shows the major factors affecting employees' job performance and productivity. The first chapters explain the diagram, and the remaining chapters present readings by outstanding behavioral scientists, management theorists and practitioners, related to the diagram.

Tannenbaum, Robert, and Warren H. Schmidt. "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern," Harvard Business Review, 36:95-101, March-April, 1958.

In deciding how to manage, the manager must consider forces operating within his own personality, forces affecting the behavior of subordinates, and environmental pressures. The authors discuss the range of possible leadership behavior available to a manager, and the types of leadership that are practical and desirable.

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Outstanding work on patterns of leadership, emphasizing the situational approach to leadership. Material is based on extensive research at the Institute for Social Research, the University of Michigan.

Tingey, Sherman. "Management Today," Hospital Administration, 32-41, Spring, 1969.

The manager should, according to the author, provide an organizational environment supporting the individual's fulfillment of his personal needs. The role of the supportive manager is contrasted with that of the autocratic manager.

such men as Maslow, Herzberg and Myers, they show how the meaningful-work approach to motivation has been used at Texas Instruments Inc. Their thesis is that "the motivated worker characteristically can assume a part of the managerial functions associated with his job; he can share in the planning, organizing and controlling of the work he does."

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Outstanding work on patterns of leadership, emphasizing the situational approach to leadership. Material is based on extensive research at the Institute for Social Research, the University of Michigan.

Tingey, Sherman. "Management Today," Hospital Administration, 32-41, Spring, 1969.

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Tolman, Edward C. Purposive Behavior in Animals and Men. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1932.

Tolman developed expectancy, or cognitive, theories of motivation. As a result of his experiments, largely with animals, he believed that it was the anticipation of reward that motivates behavior. He spoke of a "belief-value matrix" that specifies for each individual the value he places on particular outcomes and his belief that they can be attained.

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The achievement motive is defined as "the disposition to strive for success. It is very much concerned with standards of excellence, success and failure, doing better, competition, and accomplishment...achievement motivation is one of the many possible motives which people have." Although primarily a result of early childhood experiences, achievement motives can be increased in training courses and, according to Wells, experience to date has been good in achievement training situations.

Whyte, William Foote. Money and Motivation: An Analysis of Incentives in Industry. New York: Harper and Row, 1955.

An examination of the effect of money incentives on the behavior of workers, and the problems of morale and motivation. This book, which is based on the research of several social scientists, focuses first on the worker in relation to his own group and in relation to management, and then on intergroup relations within the organization. Whyte emphasizes throughout that the organization is a social system and the impact of incentives will be felt not only by those directly affected but by neighboring departments and possibly the entire organization.

4 OBJECTIVES

UNIT 4
SECTION 3

4.3 Organization Development (OD)

4.31 To establish a working definition of OD.

4.32 To examine briefly the history of OD.

4.33 To examine briefly the objectives of OD.

4.34 To compare OD with other types of change efforts.

4.35 To consider the underlying assumptions of OD.

4.36 To consider briefly some types of OD interventions.

4.37 To examine the Managerial Grid as a specific device for organization development.

4.38 To consider some conditions for failure of OD efforts.

4.39 To consider some conditions for success of OD efforts.

Unit 4, Section 3

Organizational Development

4.3 Organization Development (OD)

4.31 Some definitions

4.311 OD stands for organization development, itself a short title for a way of looking at the whole human and production side of organizational life.

4.312 Organization development has been defined as an effort that is planned, organization-wide, and managed from the top; its purpose is to increase organization effectiveness and health through planned intervention in the organization's processes, using knowledge from the behavioral sciences.[1]

4.3121 OD calls for a strategic plan for improvement, and the mobilization of resources to carry out the effort. It is a way of planning change and a way of focusing human energy toward specific desired outcomes.[2]

4.3122 It emphasizes a systems approach to organizational problems. OD is concerned with the development, change, and improvement of organizational systems and subsystems.

4.3123 Top management must actively participate in any OD effort, and must have commitment to the goals of the program.

4.3124 OD is a strategy for moving into an organization and helping it to examine its present ways of work, norms, and values, and to consider alternative ways of working.

4.313 "Ideally OD is a total organizational effort to improve team effectiveness -- decision-making processes, in

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[1]Richard Beckhard. Organization Development: Strategies and Models (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1969), pp. 9-14.

[2]Jack K. Fordyce and Raymond Weil. Managing with People: A Manager's Handbook of Organization Development Models (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1971), p. 15.

particular -- in collaboration with behavioral scientist consultants."[1]

4.314 OD is a response to change, a planned effort focused primarily on changing attitudes and behavior of people within the organization. It is a way of helping organizations to cope with a rapidly changing environment through planned, managed, purposive change.

4.32 History of OD.

4.321 In 1959, John Paul Jones was hired by Union Carbide to work on management motivation problems, and with the help of Douglas McGregor he set up an "organization development" group based primarily on McGregor's ideas.[2]

4.322 Also in the late 1950's, a headquarters human relations research group at Humble Oil and Refining Co. began to offer its services as an internal consulting group to field managers. Out of this and other training efforts, the Managerial Grid concept was developed by Blake and Mouton.[3]

4.323 A third origin of OD stems from the Survey Reserach Center at the University of Michigan where researchers used attitude surveys and feedback of survey results in efforts to change organizations.[4]

4.324 Today OD is being used in highly industrialized countries all over the world, in a wide range of organizations such as business firms, schools, police departments, and hospitals. It is involving many categories of employees: professionals, scientists, engineers, technicians, secretaries, and factory workers.

4.33 Objectives of OD.

The overall objective is to increase organizational effectiveness. Sub-objectives include the following:[5]

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[1]Wendell L. French. "Organizational Development: What It Is and Is Not," Personnel Administrator, 16:2, January-February, 1971.

[2]Gilbert Burck. "Union Carbide's Patient Schemers," Fortune, 72:148, December, 1965. See also Douglas McGregor, The Professional Manager, edited by Caroline McGregor and Warren G. Bennis (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967), pp. 106-110, 172-174.

[3]Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton. The Managerial Grid: Key Orientations for Achieving Production Through People (Houston, Gulf, 1964).

[4]French, op. cit., p. 4.

[5]Ibid., p. 6.

4.331 To create an open, problem-solving climate throughout the organization.

4.332 To supplement the authority associated with role or status with the authority of knowledge and competence.

4.333 To locate decision-making and problem-solving responsibilities as close to the information sources as possible.

4.334 To build trust among individuals and groups throughout the organization.

4.335 To make competition more relevant to work goals and to maximize collaborative efforts.

4.336 To develop a reward system which recognizes both the achievement of the organization's mission (profits or service) and organization development (growth of people within the organization).

4.337 To increase the sense of "ownership" of organization objectives throughout the work force.

4.338 To help managers to manage according to relevant objectives rather than according to past practices or objectives which do not make sense for one's area of responsibility.

4.339 To increase self-control and self-direction for people within the organization.

4.34 Relationship of OD to other types of change efforts.[1]

4.341 OD and management development.

4.3411 Management development focuses on the manager himself, in an effort to upgrade his skills, abilities and capacities.

4.3412 OD's focus is on improving the systems that make up the total organization. The emphasis is primarily, though not exclusively, on training of groups. OD concentrates on intergroup relationships; communication systems; organization structure and roles; improving goal-setting process; assessment of how work groups are operating.

4.342 OD and management training.

4.3421 Some organizations have tried to initiate an overall training effort to upgrade managerial effectiveness by sending entire management groups to university programs or training laboratories.

4.3422 OD differs from such training in that it is specifically related to the organization's mission, and it is action-oriented in the sense that it connects training with organizational action planning.

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[1]Section 4.34 is based on Beckhard, op. cit., pp. 20-25.

4.3423 While management training programs do not necessarily produce organization change, OD is specifically designed to produce change.

4.343 OD and operations research.

4.3431 OD and OR are similar in many ways: both are recent developments, both are problem centered, and both emphasize improvement and optimization of performance. Both emphasize a systems approach to problems, and both seem most effective in complex, rapidly changing systems.

4.3432 OR, however, tends to work with economic, engineering variables such as inventory, allocation, sequencing, routing, etc. It is a quantitative planned-change effort.

4.3433 OD, on the other hand, tends to select human variables: identification of mission and values, human cooperation and conflict, control and leadership, coping with and resisting change, utilization of human resources, career development, integrating and coordinating.

4.3434 The similarities and differences indicate a need for cooperative OR and OD efforts at operating levels throughout the organization, not just at the very top.

4.35 Underlying assumptions of OD.[1]

4.351 Organizations are composed of work groups; therefore the basic units of change are groups, not individuals.

4.352 Groups work more effectively when competition is reduced and collaborative action is enhanced.

4.353 Decision making is best located at the source of the information rather than at a particular level or role in the organization.

4.354 Organizations, sub-units of organizations, and individuals continuously manage their affairs against goals; controls should not be the basis of managerial strategy for they are only interim measurements.

4.355 Open communication, mutual trust and confidence are characteristics of an effective and healthy organization.

4.356 People must be involved in the changes that take place within the organization. They must have a sense of participation and ownership in the planning and conduct of change.

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[1]Sections 4.35 through 4.364 are based on Beckhard, op. cit., pp. 28-42.

4.36 Some usual types of OD interventions.

4.361 Working with teams on team development.

4.362 Working on intergroup relationships between organizational subsystems.

4.363 Working on planning and goal setting processes for individuals, teams, and larger systems.

4.364 Working on educational activities for upgrading the knowledge, skills, and abilities of key personnel at all levels.

4.365 OD techniques include team building. intergroup collaboration and problem solving, confrontation meetings, organization mirror, and life-career planning laboratory.[1]

4.366 Although usually carried out with the help of outside consultants, some OD efforts can also be initiated and carried out from within the organization.

4.367 All OD efforts are designed to find out what is going on in the organization. Some methods for gathering information include: questionnaire, interviewing, sensing, polling, collages, drawings, and physical representations of the organization.[2]

4.37 One approach to OD: The Managerial Grid.[3]

4.371 The underlying assumption of the grid is that a dichotomy does not exist in organizations between people problems and production problems. Concern for people and concern for production are complementary rather than separate problems.

4.372 The grid was developed as a training program for management. It provides a way of identifying managerial styles. The theory is that once a manager is able to locate his style of management on the grid, he can then work to change it by examining the consequences of his behavior in relation to people or production.

4.3721 There are some ninety-one positions of management style that one can locate on the grid.

4.3722 The scales shown on the grid are concern for people and concern for production.

4.3723 At one extreme is the manager who is totally interested in production. At the other extreme is the manager who is solely concerned with his employees. Between these extremes are many other variations of managerial styles.

4.373 In the training process, five position on the grid are used:

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[1]Fordyce and Weil, op. cit., pp. 89-90.

[2]Ibid., p. 137.

[3]Blake and Mouton, op. cit.

4.3731 The autocratic position -- high concern for production, little concern for people.

4.3732 The people manager -- high concern for harmony, little concern for production.

4.3733 The laissez faire position -- indifference to people and production.

4.3734 The compromise manager -- moderate concern for people and production.

4.3735 High concern for productivity and people.

4.374 The purpose of the grid is to give the manager an insight into his style of supervising, and to give him a means for evaluating his progress as he strives to improve.

4.375 The grid training program is described as a six-phase approach to organization development.[1] As Beckhard has pointed out, all six parts are essential to the program for "the organizational payoff does not come until the skills and abilities learned in the educational phase are applied by the work teams and by the organization management team."[2]

4.3751 Phase 1 is designed to make the manager aware of his own managerial behavior and the organizational climate. This phase takes the form of laboratory-seminar training.

4.3752 The second phase concerns team development. Background knowledge gained from the first phase is applied by managers to their own particular work group operations.

4.3753 Next comes identification of problem areas and likely sources of conflict between work groups. Activities in the third phase are designed to achieve better intergroup problem solving.

4.3754 The fourth phase is concerned with goal setting, short and long-term; organizational goals, team and individual goals must be identified and discussed.

4.3755 The fifth phase involves implementing planned change by attaining the established goals. It involves concrete solutions and assigning responsibility for achieving them.

4.3756 The final phase is a period of stabilizing the changes brought about in the prior phases. The effort in this phase is to make sure that changes achieved are able to withstand the pressures toward regression.

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[1]Ibid., pp. 265-285.

[2]Beckhard, op. cit., p. 22.

4.3757 Blake and Mouton estimate that depending on organizational size and complexity, the first four phases of this program may take two years of longer to complete, and that actually implementing the changes in a concrete manner may take up to two years more.[1]

4.38 Some conditions for failure of OD efforts.[2]

- 4.381 Discrepancy between top management's statements of values and actual performance of top management.
- 4.382 A lot of organizational activities without any solid base of changed goals.
- 4.383 Impatience and desire for quick change. (Three to five years is a realistic time frame in which an OD effort may begin to show real results.)
- 4.384 Too much dependence on outside consultants or on inside specialists.
- 4.385 Gap between change efforts at the top and at the middle of the organization.
- 4.386 Trying to fit change into old structure.
- 4.387 Applying strategies not appropriate for a particular organizational situation.

4.39 Some conditions for success of OD efforts.[3]

- 4.391 Top management exerts pressure for action.
- 4.392 Some intervention takes place at the top.
- 4.393 Problem areas are diagnosed and specific problems analyzed.
- 4.394 Experimentation takes place with new solutions to problems.
- 4.395 Some new solutions are invented, which result in some commitments to new courses of action.
- 4.396 The system is reinforced by the positive results attained, and this produces acceptance of the new practices.

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[1]Blake and Mouton, op. cit., pp. 274-275.

[2]Beckhard, op. cit., pp. 93-96.

[3]Larry E. Greiner, "Patterns of Organization Change," Harvard Business Review, 45:122-125, May-June, 1967.

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A brief description of OD, its objectives, its technology, and one example of an ongoing OD program.

5 UNIT 5

ENRICHMENT MODULES

5 OVERALL OBJECTIVES

UNIT 5
ENRICHMENT MODULES

The enrichment modules have the following objectives: (1) to provide additional information for those participants who may have special interests or needs for more information in a specific area than can be provided in the limited time span of the course; (2) to serve as supplementary material to the basic content of the course; and (3) to serve as a starting point for further research in a particular area. They may be used by the leader as examples in presenting the basic content, or by participants as an independent study package, equivalent to a type of programmed learning.

It is suggested that either leader or participants might wish to develop their own modules to include in the course. A task force might, for example, develop a module highlighting major concepts which a library should consider in order to provide for the development of personnel throughout a library system. Another possibility would be to develop evaluative instruments by which a library system might measure its progress in the area of personnel development.

5.1122 Bureaucratic state administration developed because of the economic necessity to regulate waterways, particularly the Nile trade route.[1]

5.1123 The highly elaborated administrative system,which passed from the Pharoahs to the Ptolemies,was organized around a strict coordination of the economic efforts of the whole population to secure for each member of the community, and the community as a whole, the highest possible degree of prosperity; the system was maintained by force.[2]

5.113 Greece.

5.1131 In his burning passion to make all the world one, Alexander proved himself an able administrator. He cherished the vision that all men should live in brotherhood, and felt that they should share with him in the administration of the army. At the scene of the humiliation of his soldiers, he said, "Every man of you...I regard as my kinsman, and from now that is the way I shall call you." In writing of this occasion, Plutarch emphasized Alexander's concept of fellowship in rule.[3]

5.1132 Plato was greatly concerned with the exact procedures for selecting and training the guardians of the Greek city-states. He proposed a rigorous education in music, literature, and gymnastics as well as drastic tests involving the severing of all family ties. "Prospective guardians must undergo a rigorous training and education. And in its course, it will turn out that not all of them can be developed to the full stature of a ruler. The guardians will, therefore, subdivide in two groups: a larger group of inferior status, the helpers, and a smaller group of men who can be educated to the point where they become guardians in the pregnant sense. And the principles of this education cannot be provided by the hopefuls who have the gifts, but not the accomplishments; they can be

[1]Max Weber, in: Albert Lepawsky, Administration: The Art and Science of Organization and Management (New York: Knopf, 1949), p. 79.

[2]Michael Rostovtzeff, in: Lepawsky, op. cit., p. 80.

[3]Andre Bonnard, Greek Civilization: From Euripides to Alexandria (London: George Allen and Unwin, 1961).

furnished only by a helper of a superior order, by Socrates himself..."[1]

5.114 Rome.

5.1141 Cassiodorus, in his letters, wrote 25 formulae for good administration and stated, " I have said nothing about the qualities of the individual office-holders, but have made such explanations as seemed suitable concerning the office."[2]

5.1142 The administrative practices that made Rome great are described as well as the ones that led to first decline. Rostovtzeff concludes, "The state...went on existing just so long as its culture and organization were superior to those of its enemies; when that superiority disappeared, new masters took control of what had become a bloodless and effete organism."[3]

5.115 Ottoman Empire.

In a brief, but comprehensive article, Gladden sums up lessons in public administration supported by experience in the Ottoman Empire.[4]

5.1151 Administration must adapt itself to changing social and political conditions.

5.1152 Efficient administration can be improved by the special training of its members. The Turkish philosophy in this respect is shown in the following quotation, "The Turks rejoice greatly when they find an exceptional man as though they had acquired a precious object, and they spare no labor in cultivating him."

5.1153 Provided opportunities of promotion for those in lower classes of service to higher classes.

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[1]Eric Voegelin, Order and History: Plato and Aristotle. Vol. 3 (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1957).

[2]Cassiodorus, "Book VI. Containing Twenty-Five Formulae," in: The Letters of Cassiodorus, with an Introduction by Thomas Hodgkin (London: Frowde, 1886).

[3]Michael Rostovtzeff, Rome (New York: Oxford University Press, 1960).

[4]E.N. Gladden, "Administration of the Ottoman Empire under Suleiman," Public Administration, 15:187-193, April, 1937.

5.1154 Need for constant simplification and planning were not provided for with serious consequences.

5.1155 Administration requires a more dependable motive power than the inspired leadership and hereditary genius upon which the Ottoman system depended.

5.116 Biblical references.

The Old Testament describes the problems of Moses in leading the children out of bondage from Egypt. It tells how Moses was sorely taxed, for everyone came to ask him to solve various problems, and he was overwhelmed. Speaking to his father-in-law about this problem, he was advised to divide the people up into groups with a leader from each group. These leaders would then report to Moses. Here we see the concept of delegation.

5.12 Medieval period.

5.121 Charlemagne divided his empire to better manage it, and established a system of inspectors to visit the regions to check on what was going on. Here we see the concept of control.

5.122 Numerous works cite example of administrative concepts and practices in the Middle Ages, for example:

5.1221 Bennett writes of Manorial Administration and the administrative procedures that developed to collect rents and services.[1]

5.1222 Fitzneale explains the administrative practices in the time of Charlemagne, especially the day-by-day operations of the English medieval exchequer.[2]

5.1223 An unusually thorough analysis of fiscal administration in England between 1327 and 1336 is provided by Morris.[3]

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[1]H.S. Bennett, Life on the English Manor (New York: Macmillan, 1937).

[2]Richard Fitzneale, The Course of the Exchequer, Translated from the Latin by Charles Johnson, (New York: Oxford University Press, 1950).

[3]William A. Morris, and Joseph R. Strayer, The English Government at Work, 1327-1336. Vol. II, Fiscal Administration (Cambridge, Massachusetts: The Mediaeval Academy of America, 1947).

5.1224 One of the outstanding authorities on administrative history of the English medieval period is Tout. Included in his studies is an account of the civil service system in England in the 14th century which shows that the bureaucrat was as active and vigorous in the 14th century as in the 20th.[1]

5.13 17th and 18th centuries.

5.131 Cameralism.

5.1311 A group of German and Austrian writers, professors, public administrators, known as the Cameralists, developed the techniques of administration, starting as early as 1550, but their activities flourished especially during the 1770's.[2]

5.1312 Cameralism was an administrative technology which dealt with such subjects as the administration of medical institutions, the establishment of industries; selection of capable recruits for administrative offices; establishment of the office of comptroller. Taken as a whole, the Cameralists developed a coherent civic theory, corresponding with the German system of administration which was developing concurrently.

5.1313 At the height of Cameralism in the 17th century, the foremost scholar of the movement was George Zincke, professor at Leipzig, who offered courses in the "Science of Law and Cameralism." His bibliography for the course contained over 2,000 titles, of which 500 dealt with financial administration. Each entry was classified on a scale ranging from "learned" through "very bad."[3]

5.1314 Zincke's chief work was his Cameralist Library, a four-volume work on the procedures and principles

[1]Thomas Francis Tout, Chapters in the Administrative History of Medieval England (Manchester: Manchester University Press, 1920-1933.)

[2]Albion W. Small, The Cameralists, the Pioneers of German Social Polity (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1909).

[3]Lepawsky, op. cit., p. 97.

of political economy, fiscal science and public administration. Zincke defined Cameralists: "By this name we mean those who possess fundamental and special knowledge about all or some particular part of those things which are necessary in order that they may assist the prince in maintaining good management in the state."[1]

5.1315 Cameralist philosophy did not make much headway outside Germany and Austria, but a parallel tendency "to promote the growth of a common European standard of administration and public service" was concurrently developing in the major European countries.[2]

5.132 Napoleon as an administrator.

5.1321 Lunley considers his reorganization of the French government in finance, law, religion, and in every area of institutional life the most outstanding five years of administrative accomplishment in history (based on his five-year period as Consulate before he was completely dominated by the idea of world conquest).[3]

5.1322 Some of the strong administrative features adhered to by Napoleon were: a clear chain of command; duties clearly and definitely apportioned between authorities; a firmly established administrative hierarchy with head at apex; specialized corps; authority personalized--authority for every action should be taken by one man; belief in the need for general staff and skilful specialists; efficient system of training promising young men from all social backgrounds; democratic element in selection of higher personnel.[4]

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[1]Small, op. cit., p. 253.

[2]Ernest Barker, The Development of Public Services in Western Europe, 1660-1930 (London: Oxford University Press, 1944).

[3]D.O. Lunley, "Napoleon Bonaparte as an Administrator," Public Administration, 1:127-135, 1923.

[4]Brian Chapman, The Profession of Government: The Public Service in Europe (London: Allen and Unwin, 1959).

5

UNIT 5
ENRICHMENT
MODULE 1-B

Enrichment Module 1-B

Objective: To recognize the principles of organization and management as they were developed and applied through major social institutions.

5.1 To show that management concepts were evolved in the past on the basis of need, and without study, research, or formulization; but historically, there is evidence of attempts to manage and organize.

5.14 The principles of organization and management as revealed through three major social institutions.

5.141 The Roman Catholic Church.

5.1411 The administrative concepts of Pope Gregory the Great in the 13th century.

5.14111 In his famous book, Pastoral Care, Gregory laid forth the qualities that are required for rulers of men. Starting with the assumption that the right to rule belongs to the skilled man, he lays out the rules of leadership which he prescribes.[1]

5.14112 One of the many roles in which Gregory showed great capacity was that of a businessman. He had a talent for organization, an amazing capacity for detail, and he managed the Church's estates as though he might have spent his whole life studying the budget.[2]

5.14113 No Pope ever furnished more definite formulas for action. He had great ability in personnel administration, for strict record-keeping, for reorganizing

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[1]Gregorius I, The Great, Saint, Pope, Pastoral Care. Trans. by Henry Davis, (Westminster, Md.: Newman, 1950). (In series, Ancient Christian Writers: The Works of the Fathers in Translation.)

[2]F. Homes Dudden, Gregory the Great: His Place in History and Thought (New York: Russell, 1967), 2 vols.

the Church.[1]

5.1412 The principles of administration found within the Catholic Church organization.

5.14121 Mooney was the first person who attempted to synthesize organizational experience under general principles. The Church was one of four institutions from which he felt many basic principles could be learned.[2]

5.14122 Mooney concludes his material on administrative lessons to be learned from the Church: "Coordination of effort, scalar territorial organization, and diversified functionalism are all outstanding features of Catholic policy, and each provides lessons that no organizer in any sphere can afford to neglect."[3]

5.14123 Another attempt to show the management lessons that could be learned from the Catholic Church was the audit undertaken by the American Institute of Management in 1956, and an updating of that document in 1960. The audit concluded with 32 lessons which modern management could learn from the Church.[4]

5.14124 In revising the AIM audit of the Church, Drucker praised the audit for some of its insights, but generally criticized it for the undignified way the material was presented, and questioned the authenticity of many of its sweeping generalizations.[5]

5.14125 Specifically Drucker states:

> There is certainly no organization from which the modern student could learn as much as he could from the Roman Catholic Church. It is the oldest "organization" in the world...And it is certainly the most

[1]Msgr. Pierre Batiffol, Saint Gregory the Great (London: Burns, Oates, and Washbourne, 1929).

[2]James D. Mooney, and Alan C. Reiley, The Principles of Organization (New York: Harper, 1939), pp. 102-115.

[3]Ibid., p. 115.

[4]American Institute of Management, Management Audit of the Roman Catholic Church (New York: American Institute of Management, 1956), p. 60.

[5]Peter F. Drucker, "The Management Audit of the Catholic Church," America, 94:582-4, February, 1956.

successful one. It is also the only one that has solved the very problems that most deeply concern the modern student of management and organization: how to organize, manage, administer and motivate. ...Moreover, the Catholic Church has developed and tested over the centuries the very concepts that the modern disciplines of management and organizations consider "basic" innovations... The Church is the most decentralized of institutions...It is also the "flattest" organizational structure we know...The Church "discovered" the staff principle 700 years ago...It established the first "functional" vice presidents...even earlier. And it formed the first "general staff corps"... 250 years before the concept first became part of military organization, and 350 years before it was first introduced -- in such forms as the U.S. Bureau of the Budget -- into secular government.[1]

5.142 The Military.

5.1421 Mooney and Reiley state:

> The principal forms of organizations are revealed in the institutions of state, church, military and industry. Through them all can be traced the colors of a common pattern. Differing objectives do not obliterate the outlines of this universal design.[2]

5.1422 Mooney and Reiley list the following principles as being especially important.

> The first is a sound doctrine. The efficient application of such a doctrine is morale or confidence...These are necessities in organized forms of every kind. It is in military organization, however, that they seem to find their most intensive expression.[3]

5.1423 Under the heading of "Scalar and Functional Principles in Military Organization," Mooney and Reiley discuss decentralized operations, delegation in military organization, and military functional definition. A chapter is devoted to

[1]Ibid., p. 582.

[2]Mooney and Reiley, op. cit., p. 133. [3]Ibid.

the evolution of the general staff.[1]

5.143 Business and Industry.[2]

5.1431 Historical background of modern industry.

5.14311 Craft industry in homes.

5.14312 Specialization of home industry.

5.14313 Advent of the merchant.

5.14314 Advent of industrial organization (in the Middle Ages).

5.143141 Formation of craft guilds.

5.143142 Organization of craft guilds into master workmen, workmen (journeymen), and apprentices.

5.14315 Guilds began to dissolve in the 15th century; by the machine age, they had practically disappeared.

5.14316 Growth of industry outside the guilds.

5.14317 Beginning of modern industrial history begins with the invention of the power driven machine in the 18th century.

5.1432 Rise of modern industrial organization.

5.14321 Began with invention of power machinery.

5.14322 Amazing progress secured through the operation of free enterprise.

5.14323 Great variety of types of organizations developed.

5.14324 Industrial problems.

5.143241 Internal: the order of unit within itself.

5.143242 Intermediate: involving internal and external.

5.143243 External: organized relations with other units--industrial, social, and governmental.

5.14325 Administrator needs to decide the policies that will govern these multiple relationships; principles of organization help him.

5.1433 Internal problems of industrial organization.

5.14331 Coordination.

5.14332 Decentralization.

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[1]Ibid., pp. 151-163.

[2]Ibid., pp. 157-214. (Outline based on this material.)

5.14333 Functional correlation (every member must know his duties and his relationship to surrounding units).

5.1434 Administrative problems of industry.

5.14341 Economic problems.

5.14342 Social problems.

5.14343 Relations with other industrial organizations.

5.1435 The labor problem.

5.14351 Divided loyalties.

5.14352 Tendency to tyranny.

5.14353 Coordination.

5.14354 Functions of associations (labor unions and management associations).

5.14355 Labor unions presume to accept responsibility for continuing welfare of man.

5.14356 Compensation requirements.

5.14357 Collective bargaining.

5.14358 Unity solution to labor problem rather than domination.

5.1436 External problems of industry.

5.14361 Struggle for power.

5.14362 Citizenship -- the final authority.

5.14363 Money.

5.14364 Taxation.

5.14365 Regulatory law.

5.14366 Needed: fearless application of principles of organization as establishing just relations between government and industry.

5

BIBLIOGRAPHY
UNIT 5
ENRICHMENT MODULE 1

Enrichment Module 1, Bibliography

American Institute of Management. Management Audit of the Roman Catholic Church. New York: American Institute of Management, 1956.

The audit was undertaken to show what administrative lessons might be learned from the Church's nineteen centuries of varied problems and remedies. "The presentation is unrequested, unbiased, and uncensored. This is the first occasion that a complete statistical management study of the Church is available."
(See review under Drucker.)

Barker, Ernest. The Development of Public Service in Western Europe, 1660-1930. London: Oxford University Press, 1944.

One of Barker's theses is that the secularization of the Church's public services was due to the increasing administrative resources of the modern state.

Batiffol, Msgr. Pierre. Saint Gregory the Great. London: Burns, Oates and Washbourne, 1929.

A small book which on almost every page bears some witness to Gregory's ability as a great administrator.

"Three words were dear to him... rectitudo, that is fidelity to law, to rules, to the canons -- a fidelity which he required from others and which he was the first of all to practice. We must also understand by rectitudo... an additional trace of obligation and command... Another word, discretio, which means by discretion, good sense, discernment in the application of the law in the choice of the right side, and in the determination of the best possible choice to pursue (decision making, in the language of today)... The third word was blandimentum -- the art of pleasing. Rectitudo must not make itself hated, and the leader who practices it most officiously ... makes rectitudo loved; and the leader must also make himself loved, without, however, seeking unduly to please."

Gregory laid down the law to all, and more of his definite answers have been preserved than of any other Pope. No Pope ever furnished more definitive formulas for action. In his writing in the Liber Pastoralis, the bishops found the soul that Gregory wanted to have.

Bennett, H.S. Life on the English Manor. New York: Macmillan, 1938.

Beyer, William C. "The Civil Service of the Ancient World," Public Administrative Review, 19:243-7, Autumn, 1959.

Early beginnings of civil service as it was practiced in Egypt, Greece and Rome. Good example of type of administrative history that can be written from study of early administrative records.

Bonnard, Andre. Greek Civilization: From Euripides to Alexandria. London: George Allen and Unwin, 1961.

Although many would disagree with the sharply critical evaluation of Plato's political projects in the chapter entitled, "The Grand Political Design of Plato," all would have to agree to the comprehensive picture the author give of Plato the man and the objectives of his life and the manner in which he organized his works. The style is fluent, concise, and interest compelling. The format of the book is beautiful and impressive.

Cassiodorus. "Book VI. Containing Twenty-Five Formulae," The Letters of Cassiodorus, with an Introduction by Thomas Hodgkin. London: Henry Frowde, 1886.

Cassiodorus writes of the reason that he compiled the formulae: "I have therefore included in my Sixth and Seventh Books, Formulae for the granting of all the dignities of the State, hoping thus to be of some service to myself...and to help my successors who may be hard pressed for time. What I have thus written concerning the past will serve equally well for the future..."

Chapman, Brian. The Profession of Government. The Public Service in Europe. London: Allen and Unwin, 1959.

Chapman clearly outlines some of the strong administrative features of the Napoleonic state.

Childe, V. Gordon. Man Makes Himself. London: Watts, 1936.

Childe's thesis is probably summed up most clearly in the concluding paragraphs of this work. "Behavior is not innate. It is not even immutably fixed by the environment. It is conditioned by social tradition. But just because tradition is created by societies of men and transmitted in distinctively human and rational ways, it

is not fixed and immutable; it is constantly changing as society deals with every new circumstance. Tradition makes the man, by circumscribing his behavior within certain bounds; but it is equally true that man makes the traditions. And so, we can repeat with deeper insight, "Man makes himself."

Throughout the work, there are clear references to the administrative skill necessary for advancement and improvement. To cite an example from the history of Mesopotamia: "Thus the first temple at Erech reveals a community raised to the dignity of a city, disposing of a surplus of real wealth accumulated in the hands of a diety, and administered by a corporation of priests. It implies an organized force of workers, specialized industries and some rudimentary system of commerce and transportation. And at this crucial moment, the beginnings at least of accountancy and even writing emerge." The story of urban civilization is shown as a continuous and repeated pattern of accumulating wealth, improving the technical skill, increasing specialization of labor and expanding trade.

Childe, V. Gordon. What Happened in History. New York: Penguin Books, 1943.

Writing of this work and its companion volume, Man Makes Himself, Dwight Waldo evaluates these two works from an administrative point of view as: "Some of the most stimulating and enlightening history that I have ever found... The model that Childe uses... is rational, co-operative action." It is chiefly by improving his equipment for living that man acts on and reacts to the external world. Throughout the work, Childe emphasizes the importance of ideology. "With the aid of abstract ideas, men have evolved and come to need new stimuli to action beyond the universal urges of hunger, security, anger and fear. And these new ideal motives come to be necessary for life itself. An ideology, however, remote from obvious biological needs, is found in practice to be biologically useful -- that is, favorable to the species' survival. Without such spiritual equipment, not only do societies tend to disintegrate, but the individuals composing them may just stop bothering to exist."

Drucker, Peter F. "The Management Audit of the Catholic Church," America, 94:582-584, February, 1956.

Praises audit for some of the shrewd insights shown in the list of 32 things which management can learn from a study of the Church, but criticizes article for undignified way material is presented. Questions authenticity of many of the sweeping generalizations.

Dudden, F. Homes. Gregory the Great: His Place in History and Thought. New York: Russell, 1967, 2 vols.

Though first published in 1905, this two-volume work by an Oxford professor is still considered the definitive biography of Gregory the Great. In the preface, the author at once states Gregory's great influence on the doctrine, organization, and discipline of the church. He believes that almost all the leading principles of later Catholicism are found in Gregory the Great. As by far the most important person of his time, he probably did more than any other single man to shape the course of European development, including the fact that it was he who was the means of introducing Christianity to England.

Dudden reports that one of the most surprising of Gregory's qualities was his remarkable power of absorbing himself in the most divergent interests and concerns and of acting at the same time most effectively in all of these different activities. Gregory was one of the best of the Papal landlords. Under his rule, the estates of the church increased in value, the tenants were prosperous and contented, and the revenues poured in to the treasury. His essential principles of leadership are enumerated in his work entitled Pastoral Care. Starting with the assumption that the right to rule belongs to the skilled man, he lays out with definiteness the rules of leadership to which he prescribes. These maxims, Dudden asserts, have "moulded the church." They have sensibly shaped the conduct and policy of the church's rulers and have "made the bishops who have made modern nations." Dudden states the basic purpose of his work is to show in what respects Gregory himself was able to realize his own ideal and in what respects he fell short.

Fitzneale, Richard. The Course of the Exchequer. Translated from the Latin by Charles Johnson. New York: Oxford, 1950.

Enrichment Module 1, Bibliography

Gladden, E.N. "Administration of the Ottoman Empire Under Suleiman," Public Administration 15:187-193, April, 1937.

A brief, but comprehensive, article which sums up lessons in public administration supported by the Ottoman experience.

Gregorius I, The Great, Saint, Pope. Pastoral Care. Trans. by Henry Davis. Westminster, Md.: Newman, 1950. (In series, Ancient Christian Writers: The Works of the Fathers in Translation.)

In his famous book, Pastoral Care, Gregory examines the qualities that are required in a ruler of men, "for to rule others is the art of arts." This work furnished a pattern of conduct for the secular priests. Indications of its importance are emphasized by the fact that in the 9th century, King Alfred the Great translated the work into West Saxon and requested that every bishop be provided with a copy to initiate a reform of clergy and laity; and the fact that Charlemagne used it in the Carolingian Church for monastic reform, where it was made obligatory for all bishops. Later, it became the custom to give a copy to all bishops at the time of their consecration.

Hsu, Leonard Shihlien. The Political Philosophy of Confucianism: An Interpretation of the Social and Political Ideas of Confucius, His Forerunners and his Early Disciples. New York: Dutton, 1932.

If one is looking for a fresh approach to administrative study, this comprehensive, precisely organized book on Confucianism might well be the answer. There is abundant evidence throughout the work of the truth of Edward S. Corwin's introductory statement, "Confucius teaches us that the task of government is that of good housekeeping. He at once anticipates the modern 'administrative' state and supplies it with a Utopia."

It is full of excellent examples of administrative history. The rules of public administration, which he sums up as essential to the realization of a benevolent rule are:

1. An intelligent understanding of the conditions of the nation by the government;
2. by the institution of an administration of "moderation;"
3. by the public spirit of rulers;
4. by the promotion of economic welfare;
5. by the industry of rulers;
6. by honest and efficient civil service.

Isis: An International Review Devoted to the History of Science and Its Cultural Influence.

Outstanding periodical which each year includes a very comprehensive annotated bibliography on each period of history and includes therein: technology, geography, biography, as well as science.

Lepawsky, Albert. Administration: The Art and Science of Organization and Management. New York: Knopf, 1949.

Through the use of quotations and readings, a history of administration is presented under the following headings:

1. The ancient Egyptian dynasties and Ptolemaic Egypt.
2. Ancient China.
3. The Ancient Greek City-state of Athens.
4. The Roman Republic and Roman Empire.
5. Medieval England and France.
6. Seventeenth and eighteenth centuries--Germany and Austria.
7. Nineteenth century America.
8. The twentieth century.

The bibliographical entries and notes are complete and rich.

Lunley, D.O. "Napoleon Bonaparte as an Administrator," Public Administration, 1:127-135, 1923.

Author evaluates Napoleon as one of the greatest administrators the world has ever known. He cites the following examples of his genius and ability in this area:

1. Save in relation to his relatives, his ability to choose subordinates was unerring.
2. He brought order out of a confused tax situation.
3. The Civil Code was revised under his leadership to include the best of Roman, French, and Revolutionary law.
4. He insured civil equality in all areas of life. He granted religious tolerance.
5. The system of local government devised under his supervision is still being used.

The author quotes Napoleon as saying, "We have done with revolution; we must now commence its history. We must have eyes only for what is real and practical in the application of principles, not for the speculative and the hypothetical."

Mansfield, Harvey C. "The Uses of History," Public Administration Review, 11:51-6, Winter, 1951.

Discussion of what the student of administration can learn from the study of history. He suggests that three kinds of generalizations can be derived from administrative theory.

1. Philosophical observations.
2. Analytical or problem-solving techniques.
3. Administrative techniques.

Mooney, James D., and Alan C. Reiley. The Principles of Organization. New York: Harper, 1939.

According to the authors, "the principal forms of organizations are revealed in the institutions of state, church, army, and industry. Through them all can be traced the colors of a common pattern. Differing objectives do not obliterate the outlines of this universal design." (p. 47)

The first edition of this work was entitled Onward Industry (New York:Harper, 1931). The authors' main hypothesis was the distinction between organizing as a depersonalized process and the day-to-day personalized administration of an organization. Organizing activities, in the authors' views, take place before administration of the organization. Mooney and Reiley, however, were not concerned with techniques. They developed a sequential arrangement of broadly applicable principles to demonstrate the meaning and logic behind functional relationships in formal organizations. The first of these principles, according to them, is the coordinate principle, which means an "orderly arrangement of group effort, to provide unity of action in the pursuit of a common purpose." Essential to this principle they listed doctrine, discipline, and mutual service. (See chart, "Logical Frame of the Principles of Organization," p. 46)

Morris, William A., and Joseph R. Strayer, eds. Fiscal Administration, Vol. II of James F. Willard, and William A. Morris, eds. The English Government at Work, 1327-1336. Cambridge, Mass.: Mediaeval Academy of America, 1947.

An unusually fine analysis of the fiscal administration in the years covered by the volume. Shows the two major problems of those responsible for collecting finances: (1) finding sources of revenue large enough to meet the expenses of government;

(2) collecting the money as rapidly, efficiently and cheaply as possible.

Covers the work of the sheriff, the exchequer, the collectors of customs and the collections of lay taxes and clerical subsidies.

Public Administration Service. Research in Public Administration. Report of the Committee on Public Administration of the Social Science Research Council. Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1945.

Points out the need for historical research in area of public administration.

Rostovtzeff, Michael. A Large Estate in Egypt in the Third Century, B.C. University of Wisconsin Studies in the Social Sciences and History, No. 6. Madison: University of Wisconsin, 1922.

_____. Rome. Trans. from the Russian by J.D. Duff. New York: Oxford, 1960.

Administrative practices are described in some detail and frequency throughout the volume.

Sheldon, Oliver. The Philosophy of Management. New York:Pitman, 1923.

A classic on the subject. Written from a broad perspective, it stresses the importance of scientific and ethical principles, and gives an exposition of social and industrial background.

Shih, Hu. "Historical Foundations for a Democratic China," in: Problems of the Peace. Interim Proceedings of the Institute of World Affairs. 21:54-63, 1944-5.

In this article by the former Chinese ambassador to the U.S. (1933-42), many ideas are touched upon which seem remarkably current in their approach. His unusually clear and concise summary of a long and complex historical period is based on his belief that certain philosophical principles firmly adhered to during thousands of years had the effect of developing a classless Chinese society where "there was no aristocracy as a class except that of learning, and learning was always accessible to all who had the intelligence and the will to acquire it." In summary, these ideas were: The essential goodness of human nature and of the infinite possibilities of education. "With education there is no class." (Confucius); the ruler who

oppresses the people and neglects their interests forfeits the right to rule--the doctrine of justifiable rebellion against tyranny; a subordinate has a sacred duty to criticize and oppose the wrong doing of his superior.

He gives the 2000+ year-old civil service competitive system of examination a great deal of credit for helping to maintain a classless society. "In a broad sense, the statesmen of China have seriously attempted to work out and put into practice a system of civil service examinations open to all people, irrespective of family, wealth, religion, or race...The idea behind these examinations is a desire to work out some objective and impartial standard for the selection of men for public offices...It was a just system which enabled the sons of the poorest and lowliest families to rise through a regular process of competition to the highest positions of honor and power in the empire."

Small, Albion W. The Cameralists, the Pioneers of German Social Polity. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1909.

Classic work on the Cameralists.

Tout, Thomas Francis. Chapters in the Administrative History of Medieval England. Manchester: Manchester University Press, 1920-1933.

Author an outstanding authority on administrative history of the legal-institution type. He laid stress on the documentary record, especially of the wardrobe.

Voegelin, Eric. Order and History: Plato and Aristotle. Vol. 3. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1957.

The material on the Republic opens with a helpful guide to the organization of the material covered in the work, so that it is much easier to find specific material for which one is searching.

Typical of the comments in the exposition of the Republic are the following:

"We have created a 'paradigm of a good polis' in our discourse; and its validity is not impaired if we cannot offer a recipe for its realization. The paradigm, thus is a standard (not an 'ideal', but a historical fact) by which it can be measured; and the reliability of the measure is not diminished if things fall short of it, or if we have no means to bring them closer to it.

"Having thus safeguarded the nature of the paradigm as a true standard independent of its realization, Socrates announces the famous condition; 'Unless either the philosophers become kings in the poleis, or those who now are called kings and rulers become philosophers, genuinely and adequately, so that political power and philosophy meet in one, and the common natures who now pursue the two separately are forcefully excluded, there will be no rest from evil for the poleis, nor, I believe, for the human race either. And not until that happens, will this politeia of ours have a measure of growth and see the light of the sun." (473c-d)

Waldo, Dwight, "Perspectives of History," Perspectives on Administration. University, Ala.: University of Alabama Press, 1956, pp. 50-73.

A provocative essay which opens up many avenues and methods of possible research in dealing with administrative history. Areas suggested specifically as needing investigation:

1. Ancient administration.
2. Administration of mercantilism.
3. American state and local administrative history.
4. U.S. federal administration.
5. History of church administration.
6. Historical study of the interchange of administrative techniques between America and Europe.
7. Comparative administrative history.
8. Relationships of time and place.
9. Relationships between administrative and political theory.

Highlights what this author considers the best historical writing on administration in the past.

_____. The Study of Public Administration. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1955.

An essay which gives the historical roots of the study of public administration and relates public administration to other social sciences.

Weber, Max. "Bureaucracy," in: Hans H. Gerth, and C. Wright Mills, eds. Max Weber: Essays in Sociology. New York: Oxford, 1946, pp. 212-213.

Weber, Max. "The Chinese Literati," in: Hans H. Gerth, and C. Wright Mills, eds. Max Weber: Essays in Sociology. New York: Oxford, 1946, pp. 417-444.

_____. The Theory of Social and Economic Organization. Trans. by A.M. Henderson and Talcott Parsons; ed. by Talcott Parsons. New York: Oxford, 1947.

Writing on the value of Max Weber in historical administrative study, Waldo says:

"A perspective on administrative history that I have found very rewarding...Max Weber's conceptualization of bureaucracy... places our POSDCORB thinking in the perspective of history and culture. With the instrument Weber places in our hands, we can get outside our own historical situation and look in upon it. The bureaucratic model enables me to see administrative systems, or certain types of administrative systems, in meaningful relationships to belief systems, class systems, economic systems and such social institutions as law, family, church, and the military. What is asserted by Weber to be a cause-and-effect relationship may be sometimes, even often, wrong; but at least there are a host of hypotheses to stimulate and to challenge." (Dwight Waldo, Perspectives on Administration. University, Ala.:University of Alabama Press, 1956.)

Wilhelm, Richard. A Short History of Chinese Civilization. Trans. by Joan Joshua. New York: Viking, 1929.

Gives helpful evaluation of various administrative techniques especially the examination system, which it gives credit for effectively shattering the power of the hereditary nobility and substituting in its place a kind of intellectual aristocracy, but also points out its disadvantages.

"This system ultimately forfeited a great part of its value, in that the examination standard became more and more stereotyped, and that on this account the whole of official Chinese education has tended toward superficiality and formalism, for examination requirements invariably govern...the studies and work of those who anticipate entering for them...The examination system...became a kind of idol hypnotizing the intellectual life of whole generations by fixing their gaze on the glorious goal --an official post -- and the path to

this goal -- the State examination...Regarded objectively, this focusing of interest on examinations..was..prejudicial to cultural progress."

Wilson, Woodrow. "The Study of Administration," Political Science Quarterly, 56:481-506, December, 1941.

In submitting the article for publication in the Political Science Quarterly, Woodrow Wilson sent the following note to its editor, Dr. Edwin R.A. Seligman, on November 11, 1886. "I did not prepare it with any thought of publication, but only as a semi-popular introduction to administrative studies, treating of the history of the Science of Administration, of the conditions of the study, and of the needs for it in this country; the methods proper to it, etc. In other words, it goes critically round about the study, considering it from various outside points of view, rather than entering it, and handling its proper topics."

Wu, Yu. "The Evolution of the System of Chinese Civil Service Examinations," Unpublished master's dissertation, The Department of Public Administration, The American University, Washington, D.C., 1949.

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UNIT 5
ENRICHMENT
MODULE 2

Enrichment Module 2

Objective: To examine the problems that unions pose for management.

5.2 Unions: their functions and effects.
5.21 Unions and the employee.
5.211 The union serves as a protective device for worker against exploitation.[1]
5.2111 Unionism developed as a reaction to administrators who underemphasized the worker's humanity and overemphasized the worker's commodity value.
5.2112 In an economy motivated toward profit on one hand and cost-cutting on the other, it was easy for the administrators to slip into the Ricardian tradition which identified labor as a commodity the value of which, like that of land and capital, was to be determined by abundance or scarcity.
5.2113 From secularists like Robert Own and Karl Marx, as well as from theologians like Pope Leo XII, came protests against the dehumanizing process which made the person no more prized than the material commodity.
5.2114 "To the extent that any manager takes a view which depersonalizes the worker, he is culpable of unethical motivations which lead all to often to unethical actions."
5.2115 "When nineteenth-century businessmen wedded Social Darwinism, with its emphasis on inexorable competition, to the harsher aspects of classical economic doctrine, the stage was set for labor's act of protest. In this protest lies dormant violence."
5.2116 "If workers are now getting 'more and more of the social dividend' Professor Lawrence Lockley of Santa Clara has written, 'this general betterment can be more realistically ascribed to union

[1]The ideas and quotations in this section are based on Clarence Walton, Ethos and the Executive (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.:Prentice-Hall, 1969), pp. 136-139.

pressure than to the wisdom of management.' "

5.212 Workers feel they can fight back through the union to protect their rights.[1]

5.2121 The typical union member regards his union as a service.

5.2122 The typical union member regards the union as a protective agency to which dues are paid regularly to protect his rights and champion his causes.

5.21221 "The union is in business to represent its members, to champion their causes, just or unjust. It cannot say, for example, 'You were right, Mr. Management, in re-evaluating the job and reducing the rate,' because the employees look to the union to protect and fight for them. If this union won't, they will find one that will. The union plays the role of the attorney espousing his client's cause, not of the judge deciding right and wrong, or the mediator trying to settle differences between the company and employees. Unions have their internal politics -- union officers can be voted out, and so can unions. Just as the company must protect its competitive position, they too must protect theirs."[2]

5.21222 "These principles are the foundation of a union's psychology. This explains its behavior and forms the basis for understanding and predicting its moves."[3]

5.213 The union is a means for meeting power with power.

5.2131 Collective bargaining: means of working out solutions to mutual problems.

5.21311 Assumes a rational dialogue between two parties having rights to be represented and to be heard;

[1]William Spinrad, "Correlates of Trade Union Participation: A Summary of the Literature," American Sociological Review, 25:243-244, April, 1960.

[2]Richard L. Schiffer, "Labor Relations: You Make the Important Decisions," in: American Management Association, Leadership on the Job: Guides to Good Supervision (New York: American Management Association, 1966), p. 317.

[3]Ibid.

represents a higher ethical position than strikes and possible violence which result from unfair or unsuccessful bargaining.

5.21312 Collective bargaining is essentially a competitive process.[1]

5.213121 The bargainer tries to outguess the other party, to hide his own motives, to play up concessions he grants his opponent, and to play down those he receives.

5.213122 Characterized by "playing one's cards close to the chest."

5.213123 Real collective bargaining is essentially characterized by conflict.[2]

5.21313 What contributes to successful bargaining and the maintenance of harmonious labor-management relationships?[3]

5.213131 Management fully accepts the collective bargaining process and unionism as an institution and considers strong unions to be assets in the conduct of the business.

5.213132 The unions fully accept private ownership and operation of industry and recognize that the welfare of their members depends on the profitable operation of the business.

5.213133 The unions are strong, responsible, and democratic.

5.213134 The company stays out of union's internal affairs; it does not seek to alienate the worker's allegiance to his union.

5.213135 Mutual trust and confidence exist between the parties, based on a history of responsible and fair dealings and respect for each other's functions.

5.213136 Neither party to bargaining has adopted a legalistic approach to the solution of problems in the relationship.

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[1]Douglas McGregor, Leadership and Motivation (Cambridge: MIT Press, 1966), pp. 88-92. Discussion features the differences between collective bargaining and cooperation -- real collective bargaining is essentially characterized by conflict, cooperation by mutual aid.

[2]Ibid.

[3]National Planning Association. Committee on the Causes of Industrial Peace under Collective Bargaining, Fundamentals of Labor Peace: A Final Report (Washington, D.C.: National Planning Association, 1953), pp. 93-94.

5.213137 Negotiations are "problem-centered"--more time is spent on day-to-day problems than on defining abstract principles.

5.213138 Collective bargaining is not merely an annual affair in the most satisfactory and peaceful industrial relations situations. There is wide-spread union-management consultation in administering of the contract and in day-to-day relations. Grievances are settled promptly in an orderly and flexible procedure.

5.2132 The Strike.

5.21321 The strike is the ultimate weapon of power used by the union.

5.21322 The strike "is a form of 'warfare' which comes only after the workers' claims are deemed essentially just, and only after union leadership is convinced that the strike has a fair chance to succeed."[1]

5.2133 The Lockout.

5.21331 Lockouts by management are the way administrators resort to ultimate power.

5.21332 It is generally conceded that lockouts should only be employed as a last resort and under the same basic ground rules that govern a strike.

5.214 The union is a means to build a better world for the worker.

5.2141 Sharing income.

5.21411 In raising wages, labor made its first big thrust.

5.21412 Basic principles regarding wage.

5.214121 Workers are persons with rights to a decent livelihood.

5.214122 In a conflict between return on investment and return to worker, the latter takes priority.[2]

5.21413 Suggested criteria for a "just wage."[3]

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[1]Walton, op. cit., p. 157.

[2]Ibid., p. 167. For example of experiments to try to establish a just wage in the U.S.A., see pp. 166-173.

[3]Michael Fogarty in Walton, op. cit., pp. 165-166.

5.214131 Pay should equal the value of the work each worker does, and this value should be at the highest level current technical and social conditions permit.

5.214132 The pay package must recognize the importance of the worker's need to maintain his accustomed standard of living.

5.214133 The wage should be consistent with the overall resources of the community.

5.214134 Problems affecting the total economy and beyond the control of a single enterprise or industry involve the government in determining welfare benefits and allocation of costs.

5.2142 Assuring jobs.

5.21421 With the advent of automation, workers have come to view technological innovation as a potential threat.

5.21422 The traditional principle that workers, like other resources in a free economy, should find their way to jobs where market demand shows a need is no longer practical when hundreds (or thousands) of workers may be laid off at one time.

5.21423 Needs to be a shift from interest in producing goods and services to a coordinate interest in producing jobs.

5.21424 Some of the options possible are: retraining programs, longer vacations, changes in the work week, limitations on the amount of overtime and on contracting out policies, early retirement, and probably more important, the creation of new jobs to provide new, improved services.

5.2143 Sharing power.

5.21431 Today a trend toward sharing authority within organizations on a continuing basis is evident.

5.21432 "What is currently happening is nothing less than a minor social revolution -- an industrial parallel to the nineteenth century struggle for universal suffrage. The basic concern in this struggle is over the appropriate role of authority and power in the hierarchical structures of the business community."[1]

[1]Walton, op. cit., pp. 179-180.

5.21433 The concept of quantified authority is being challenged today.

5.214331 Traditionally, it was held that granting power to another reduced one's own power by the amount granted.

5.214332 Trend today to feel that power is not a set quantity, but rather, like capital, susceptible to indefinite growth even as it is shared.

5.214333 Mason Haire[1] (and much earlier, Follett) presented the view that management has wrongly stressed power over workers rather than participation with workers.

5.21434 "Whether administrators accept the new view and, as a consequence, lead efforts to share power with workers, or whether they will fight to safeguard their historic position by appeal to 'managerial prerogatives' will determine the ease or bitterness with which the issue, already joined, will be resolved."[2]

5.21435 In management-labor relationships, the trend is toward participative management, where administrator and worker share powers in decision making on matters that directly affect the employee.

5.215 The union leader is looked upon as concerned with the interest of the worker.[3]

5.2151 The mainstay of the local union's life is the shop steward who, among other duties, represents individual members in grievance hearings as the first step in the grievance procedure.

5.2152 Local union officers, who spent about eight hours a week on union work, reported in a study that the main reason for accepting and continuing in office was the opportunity for

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[1]Mason Haire, "The Concept of Power and the Concept of Man," in: George B. Strother, ed., Social Science Approaches to Business Behavior (Homewood, Ill.:Dorsey-Irwin, 1962), pp. 163-183.

[2]Walton, op. cit., p. 181.

[3]William G. Scott, Human Relations in Management (Homewood, Ill.: Irwin, 1962), pp. 285-290.

improving the lot of the workers and the policies of the union, and for following a deep interest in the labor movement.

5.2153 In the same survey, it was found that officers felt a conflict of interest exists between workers and management and that the union keeps management in line.

5.2154 The union member is generally satisfied or dissatisfied with his union depending on the manner in which the union leaders are achieving basic union goals of fulfilling economic demands and checking management authority.

5.2155 The large proportion of union members view their union as a service -- as a protective agency to which dues are paid regularly.

5.2156 Through personal interaction among activist union members, union leaders and representatives, the workers are able to bring their wishes and needs to the attention of union officials.

5.216 The union will take up grievances of worker.

5.2161 An integral part of the supervisor-steward relationship is the handling of grievances.

5.2162 The grievance procedure provides a systematic method for coping with many alleged contract violations that occur.

5.2163 The supervisor who tries to evade a grievance either by sloughing it off, or by accepting it only in a critical manner, is missing an opportunity to keep his operation running smoothly. A small grievance not taken care of can develop into a full-scale labor problem. A positive approach is required, considering grievances not as affronts to authority, but as aids in ironing out problems.

5.2164 One of the first demands a union often makes is the establishment of a formalized grievance procedure.[1]

5.217 The right of the foreman or supervisor to fire without hesitation is gone. Union shops have contractual agreements, and the foreman can no longer fire at his discretion. There must be reasons and procedures.

5.2171 In labor relations, the person who initiates action always has the burden of proving that his action did not violate

1 Robert Lewis, "A New Dimension in Library Administration -- Negotiating a Union Contract," ALA Bulletin, 63:457, April, 1969.

the contract. Therefore, if the company disciplines or discharges an employee, it must prove that the action was for just cause, for good and sufficient cause, or however the contract phrases it.

5.2172 Three basic types of evidence are needed for management to prove its case.[1]

5.21721 Direct evidence: testimony given by witnesses.

5.21722 Real evidence: defective work, damaged equipment, etc.

5.21723 Circumstantial evidence: evidence drawn from surrounding facts. If circumstantial evidence is to be used, two requirements must be satisfied.

5.217231 Positive: all facts, circumstances, and reasonable conclusions point to the accused as the guilty party.

5.217232 Negative: all the facts, circumstances and reasonable conclusions exclude everyone else as the guilty party.

5.218 Union provides security for the worker.

5.2181 Workers join unions to satisfy needs.

5.2182 Unions seek to obtain satisfaction for members in terms of direct wages and through job security and fringe benefits.

5.219 Search of unions for management-union cooperation.

5.2191 General mutual understanding of the part of the participants in the union-management relationship is necessary for union-management cooperation.

5.2192 Instances of really successful cooperation are rare, partly because union-management relations are still in the early stages of growth, and partly because most people do not realize the requirements for genuine cooperation.[2]

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[1]Schiffer, op. cit., p. 321.

[2]For a discussion of union-management cooperation see:
McGregor, op. cit, pp. 83-113; and
M. Scott Myers, "Overcoming Union Opposition to Job Enrichment," Harvard Business Review, 49:37-49, May-June, 1971.

may be blamed for poor administration when it is not at fault.

5.2221 The supervisor must not only know his employees and their needs, but he must also have a clear understanding of the organization's philosophy, goals, and programs.

5.2222 The supervisor must be given an effective opportunity to comment and to offer suggestions about the contract's negotiation. It is important that management actively seek his ideas before entering negotiations.

5.2223 After the contract has been negotiated, the supervisor must be thoroughly briefed on its provisions. Management must continue to maintain two-way communication with him, providing whatever training or information he may need.

5.2224 For advice and guidance in administration, the supervisor must have access to competent specialists in industrial relations.[1]

5.223 All conditions cannot be covered in a contract, and the supervisor must frequently fall back on his own judgment. This takes extreme care so that the supervisor won't give up important managerial rights on the one hand, or upset the union members and/or officers on the other hand.[2]

5.224 "Broadly speaking, the cardinal rule of all labor relations is that both management and the union have certain prerogatives. The right to make decisions is management's; the right to protest these decisions is the union's. Whenever either party attempts to trespass on the right of the other, good labor relations have been violated."[3]

1Dale D. McConkey, "The Supervisor and the Labor Contract," in: American Management Association, Leadership on the Job: Guides to Good Supervision (New York: American Management Association, 1966), pp. 314-315.

2Ibid., pp. 311-312. 3Ibid., p. 313.

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BIBLIOGRAPHY
UNIT 5
ENRICHMENT MODULE 2

Enrichment Module 2, Bibliography

American Management Association. Leadership on the Job: Guides to Good Supervision. New rev. ed. New York: American Management Association, 1966, pp. 305-322.

These selected readings from Supervisory Management include two helpful articles on the supervisor's day-by-day working relationships with unions. One, entitled "The Supervisor and the Labor Contract," by Dale D. McConkey, emphasizes pitfalls that a supervisor should try to avoid in dealing with unions, and concludes with ten positive steps to help the supervisor fulfill the spirit and the letter of the contract. The article presents the thesis that although the first line supervisor probably is not present at the negotiations, he is the organization's primary and most responsible agent in carrying out the labor contract.

The second article, entitled "Labor Relations: You Make the Important Decisions," by Richard L. Schiffer, emphasizes the supervisor's basic job in relation to the union contract -- to exercise his authority as a manager to achieve optimum operating flexibility and prevent abuse of employee and union rights, benefits, and privileges on a day-by-day level.

American Society for Public Administration. "Collective Negotiations in the Public Service; A Symposium," Public Administration Review, 28:111-147, March/April, 1968.

A series of articles on recent developments in management-employee relations in the public service, and the implications these new developments have for public administration in general. "The mood of the times is one of dissatisfaction with the status quo, expressed in action more than words." Not only have more government workers been joining unions, but they have become increasingly militant in their attitude toward their government employers. The articles included in the symposium are: "The New Militancy of Public Employees," by Rollin B. Posey; "Collective Bargaining Concepts: Applications in Governments," by Chester A. Newland; "The New Dimensions of the Strike Question," by Gordon T. Nesvig; "Bilateralism and the Merit Principle," by Paul M. Camp and W. Richard Lomax; and "The Implications for Public Administration," by Felix A. Nigro.

Auld, Lawrence W.S. "ALA and Collective Bargaining," ALA Bulletin, 63:96-7, January, 1969.

Should ALA join hands with organized labor to seek collective bargaining rights for librarians? In this short article, the author raises that question and then discusses some of the problems which complicate the issue.

Blake, Robert R., Jane R. Mouton, and Richard L. Sloma. "The Union-Management Intergroup Laboratory: Strategy for Resolving Intergroup Conflict," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1:25-57, January-February-March, 1965.

This article describes a systematic approach for confronting intense hostility between management and union, and moving from the traditional win-lose orientation toward a sound problem-solving relationship. The authors give a comprehensive presentation of how a particular company decided to experiment with organizational development techniques by holding a union-management intergroup laboratory. The techniques used, the reactions of both union and management participants, and the results are discussed in detail.

"Collective Bargaining: Questions and Answers," ALA Bulletin, 62: 1385-1390, December, 1968.

The Library Administration Division of ALA sent out ten questions on library collective bargaining to public libraries with union contracts. Both library administrators and union officials answered the questions. This article summarizes their responses to such matters as why professional librarians organize, changes in public service patterns resulting from library collective bargaining, and the training library personnel need to prepare themselves for effective negotiating.

Cottam, K.M. "Unionization is not Inevitable," Library Journal, 93:4105-4106, November, 1968.

A plea for more vigorous professional associations as an alternative to labor unions in librarianship.

Ladenson, Alex. "The Fair Labor Standards Act as Applied to Libraries," ALA Bulletin, 62:400-402, April, 1968.

The Fair Labor Standards Act as amended now applies to school, hospital, college and university library employees except those in executive, administrative or professional positions. The act is not legally applicable to public libraries, but the author warns that "labor unions and employee groups will no doubt bring pressure to bear on library boards to meet the wage and hour standards fixed in the law. Since these are minimum standards, it is difficult in an affluent society to oppose them."

Lewis, Robert. "A New Dimension in Library Administration -- Negotiating a Union Contract," ALA Bulletin, 63:455-464, April, 1969.

The author is the lawyer who negotiated a collective bargaining agreement for the Brooklyn Public Library in 1966-67. He describes in considerable detail from the point of view of management, how the negotiations proceeded month after month, until finally the first union contract covering an entire library system in New York City was agreed upon. The union's side of the story is presented in an article by Martin Lubin and Larry Brandwein.

Lubin, Martin, and Larry Brandwein. "Negotiating and Collective Bargaining Agreement -- the Union Perspective," ALA Bulletin, 63:973-978, July-August, 1969.

The authors present the union's side in the Brooklyn Public Library's collective bargaining negotiations. This article is in direct response to an article by Robert Lewis which they feel provides a "highly unsatisfactory appraisal of the union scene." Why did professional staff vote for the union? The most important factor, according to Lubin and Brandwein, was "the prospect of having for the first time an opportunity to take a real part in shaping their own futures as professional librarians, and of the future of the library as an institution."

McGregor, Douglas. Leadership and Motivation. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, 1966, pp. 83-113.

McGregor gives requirements for union-management cooperation based on mutual aid as opposed to collective bargaining, which he feels is essentially characterized by conflict. "We are not

attempting to criticize collective bargaining or to praise cooperation. Both procedures have important roles in union-management relations. Collective bargaining does not disappear when cooperation emerges. There are some problems, notably wage negotiation, that are likely to remain matters for collective bargaining regardless of the degree of cooperation that exists between a union and management. There is nevertheless some shift as the developmental process takes place. Some of the things that were originally dealt with through collective bargaining come in time to be dealt with cooperatively. For example, a great many grievances come to be handled in time by cooperative means.

"It is perfectly possible for union and management to cooperate on some things and to compete on others. What is not possible is for them to compete and to cooperate at once on the same problem. Matters for collective bargaining (involving conflict) cannot at one and the same time be matters for cooperation (involving mutual aid)."

Marx, Herbert L., ed. Collective Bargaining for Public Employees. New York: Wilson, 1969.

The editor presents the thesis that the growing strength of unions in the public sector may be considered an extension of the American trade union movement, even though there is one sharp distinction between public unions and trade unionism; namely that government employees are not dealing with a profit-oriented employer. The book is comprised of articles from current literature which deal with major issues of public sector unionism as they exist at the start of the 1970's, such as: (1) government employees at all levels should have the right to organize and be represented in collective bargaining; (2) strikes by government employees are fundamentally wrong and contrary to our theories of the sovereignty of the state; (3) how to reconcile these two concepts (the major labor-management perplexity of our time); (4) the inside workings of unions among government employees; (5) the legal aspects of governmental labor relations. A fourteen-page bibliography on collective bargaining for public employees includes twelve references to library unions, of which three articles are reprinted in the volume.

Mleynek, Darryl. "Professional Unions," California Librarian, 31:110-118, April, 1970.

"We contend that the formulation of policy is the right and obligation of all professionals within a library system." That statement reflects the philosophy of the Librarians' Guild in California, one of the first professional library unions. Librarians below the administrative level often have routine jobs with little opportunity to make significant improvements in the service they offer. Dissatisfaction with such conditions is the principal reason for the professional union movement, according to Mleynek. In this article, he presents a ten-point action program for professional unions in libraries.

_____. "Unions -- What's in it for Administrators?" Wilson Library Bulletin, 43:752-755, April, 1969.

The author, a strong proponent of professional library unions, argues here that instead of waging a lone battle with trustees, city council or county board of supervisors, the library administrator should welcome the help of the union. The chief librarian usually has little political power, and by contrast the union has both political power and experience in using it. As a result of union activities, Mleynek believes librarians "will become both more involved in and more knowledgeable about the library's problems. Involvement begets professionalism; and professionalism is almost by definition responsibility."

Myers, M. Scott. "Overcoming Union Opposition to Job Enrichment," Harvard Business Review, 49:37-49, May-June, 1971.

The author is concerned with developing cooperation between management and union officials, rather than perpetuating traditional union-management warfare. He believes strategies must be found "which will break the insidious cycle and make synergy, rather than domination, the mission of both parties," and he describes four organizational development approaches that have proved effective. He terms these approaches: (1) confrontation model; (2) management training model; (3) reorientation model; and (4) negotiated collaboration model. Each of these models is discussed in terms of an organization which has actually tried it.

Enrichment Module 2, Bibliography

National Planning Association. Committee on the Causes of Industrial Peace under Collective Bargaining. Causes of Industrial Peace. Washington, D.C.: National Planning Association, 1948-1953.

A series of fourteen case studies, based on detailed surveys of companies and unions which had experienced successful and peaceful industrial relations. The purpose of the studies was to try to discover whether what makes peace in some companies can be transferred to others. Nine basic causes of industrial peace were found, and they are worth repeating today:

1. There is full acceptance by management of the collective bargaining process and of unionism as an institution. A strong union is considered an asset to management.
2. The union fully accepts private ownership and operation of the industry; it recognizes that the welfare of its members depends upon the successful operation of the business.
3. The union is strong, responsible, and democratic.
4. The company stays out of the union's internal affairs; it does not seek to alienate the workers' allegiance to their union.
5. Mutual trust and confidence exist between the parties.
6. Neither party to bargaining has adopted a legalistic approach to problem solving.
7. Negotiations are problem-centered.
8. There is widespread union-management consultation and highly developed information-sharing.
9. Grievances are settled promptly, flexibly and in the local plant whenever possible.

Nyren, Karl. "Libraries and Labor Unions," Library Journal, 92:2115-2121, January, 1967.

The editor of Library Journal presents a sweeping survey of librarians' growing interest in unionism in the mid-1960's.

"Opinions on Collective Bargaining," ALA Bulletin, 63:803-809, June, 1969.

An analysis of an ALA survey sponsored by the Staff Organizations Round Table in 1968, to determine librarians' opinions about library collective bargaining and unionization.

Scott, William G. Human Relations in Management: A Behavioral Science Approach. Homewood, Ill.: Irwin, 1962, pp. 271-293.

Presents a brief summary of union problems, changes in American unionism, the union control structure, union leadership, union democracy, and membership participation in the local union.

Smith, Eldred. "Librarians and Unions: the Berkeley Experience," Library Journal, 93:717-720, February, 1968.

The nonadministrative librarian must "press for professionalization. In doing so, he must fight for professional equality and against the hierarchical patterns that dominate library administration. He needs powerful organizational help to do this. The only organization which is both willing and able to help him is the labor union, and it is through union activity alone that the professionalization of librarianship seems possible." So concludes the author of this article, former chairman of the Library Chapter, University Federation of Teachers on the Berkeley campus of the University of California.

_____. "Librarians Association at the University of California," ALA Bulletin, 63:363-368, March, 1969.

A description of the University of California librarians' organization, why it was formed and what it hopes to gain, as a non-union organization working within the structure of the university.

Task Force on State and Local Government Labor Relations. Report. Chicago: Public Personnel Association on Behalf of 1967 Executive Committee of the National Governors' Conference, 1967. Annual supplements, 1968-

This report, undertaken to clarify problems caused by the expansion of collective bargaining in the public sector, raises a number of important policy questions and provides much useful information on the implications of public service unionization. Such issues are discussed as: (1) the need for positive new legislation; (2) the need for administrative changes; (3) limitations on the scope of bargaining; and (4) the problem of balancing the rights of public employees with the needs of the rest of the community. A glossary of union terms is included, along with a comprehensive state-by-state review of legislation pertaining to public employee rights, such as the right to organize, the right to bargain collectively, etc.

The report ends with an informative annotated bibliography. Annual supplements update the report, the legislation review, and the bibliography.

Twentieth Century Fund. Pickets at City Hall; Report and Recommendations of the Twentieth Century Fund Task Force on Labor Disputes in Public Employment. New York: Twentieth Century Fund, 1970.

The fastest growing segment of organized labor is now in government. From 1958 to 1968, union membership in the U.S. increased by 1.8 million, and more than one million of these new union members were public employees. The same ten years witnessed the transformation of professional associations -- the National Education Association, for example -- into functioning labor unions. Increasing public employee restiveness is cause for serious concern. This report attempts to set up guidelines for both employers and employees for resolving labor-management conflicts in the public service.

Vogel, Alfred. "Your Clerical Workers Are Ripe for Unionism," Harvard Business Review, 49:48-54, March-April, 1971.

Although clerical workers have traditionally resisted union overtures, relying instead on management responsiveness to their problems, Vogel sees new evidence that traditional clerical loyalty to management is breaking down. He believes management-clerical relationships can be improved if the clerical work is made more challenging and if management becomes more responsive to needs of clerical employees to be heard, to contribute to planning, and to know what is going on in the organization. Unless management begins to act now, he concludes, clerical discontent will increase in the future.

Walton, Clarence C. Ethos and the Executive: Values in Managerial Decision Making. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1969.

Two chapters (Chapter 6: "The Executive and the Worker: Ethics of Accommodation," and Chapter 7: "The Administrator and the Worker: the Ethics of Sharing") discuss philosophically the methods of major-management relationships with specific coverage of: (a) the administrator's attitude toward the union as a voluntary association; (b) his view of the worker in a competitive economy;

(c) his attitude toward collective bargaining; (d) his assessment of the union's ultimate weapon when bargaining fails -- the strike; (e) the problem of justice as it relates to the sharing of income; (f) the sharing of jobs; and (g) the sharing of power. Excellent coverage of an approach that is difficult to find in the literature -- abundantly footnoted in depth.

Warner, Kenneth O., and Mary L. Hennessy. Public Management at the Bargaining Table. Chicago: Public Personnel Association, 1967.

"We believe there is no one right or wrong way for public management to conduct itself at the bargaining table. But there certainly must be a better way." In this spirit, the authors have compiled a handbook directed primarily to public management, which offers many practical suggestions about planning and conducting "creative collective bargaining," in ways that will result in harmonious relationships with employee organizations. Chapter 7, "Collective Bargaining from Start to Finish," provides detailed information on such matters as preparation for negotiation, where to obtain bargaining data, techniques of negotiation, conduct at the bargaining table, writing the agreement, implementing it, and then living with the contract.

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UNIT 5
ENRICHMENT
MODULE 3

Enrichment Module 3

Objective: To consider the importance of perception in the work situation.

5.3 Perception in the work situation.

5.31 The importance of self-concept.

5.311 An individual's self-concept has been defined as the organization or patterning of attitudes, habits, knowledge, drives, and the like, which influence the ways he generally thinks and behaves.[1]

5.312 Everything we do or say, feel or otherwise perceive is influenced by how we see ourselves; and how we see ourselves determines in large part what we react to, what we perceive, and how we behave.

5.313 At different stages of life, various aspects of self awareness emerge. Each of us has an evolving sense of self as long as we continue to grow.

5.314 Adults usually have built-in resistance to changes in self-concept. Psychologically, the mature person resists change and finds comfort in the status quo.

5.315 "When the mature person changes, therefore, he does so against a natural resistance; but whether this helps him to retain his basic direction and character, or whether it is a cacoon that makes him unreachable, is a moot question. Resistance, though built in, may thus be either a roadblock or a gyroscope."[2]

5.32 The importance of the manager's self-concept.

5.321 How the manager perceives himself has effect on the organization and on the people with whom he works. A manager's self-concept is particularly important because of his position in the organization.

5.322 Does he see himself as others see him? Does he take a broad view of himself, his job, and the organization? Does he have a sense of his own potential, what he could

[1]Paul J. Brouwer, "The Power to See Ourselves," in William B. Eddy and others, eds. Behavioral Science and the Manager's Role (Washington, D.C.: NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, 1969), p. 37.

[2]Ibid., p. 43.

be rather than what he is? Does he have a sense of the organization's potential, what it could be? Is he striving to fulfill his own and the organization's potential? Or has he given up trying to change, settling instead for defeat and the status quo?

5.323 The answers to such questions are important, for they determine in large part what the organization will be like and whether or not employees will have opportunities for growth and development on the job.

5.324 If a manager wishes to grow, he must take charge of his own development; nothing can be done to make him grow and change against his will. No opportunity, whether managerment development courses, books, people or experience, will automatically make him grow.

5.325 Such opportunities "effect change in the participant only as he reaches out and appropriates something -- a bit of wisdom, a new idea, or a new concept -- that stretches him, and gives him an answer to his own self-generated problem."[1]

5.33 The importance of the manager's perception in the change process.

5.331 The manager must serve as an educator when the organization is undergoing change. This role is equal in importance with his roles as decision maker, planner, coordinator and group leader.

5.332 The manager is responsible for creating favorable conditions in the organization under which the desired changes can take place.

5.333 He must be concerned with the process of learning, with attitudes and how they are changed.

5.334 He must understand resistance to change, be able to locate its sources and deal effectively with such resistance.

5.3341 When a manager meets opposition to change, he must carefully consider his response. Some generally ineffective responses are: defense, advice-giving, premature persuasion, censoring, controlling, and punishing.

5.3342 He must recognize that there is some value in resistance.

[1]Ibid., p. 47.

5.33421 Resistance can help him to clarify more sharply the purpose of the change and the results to be achieved.

5.33422 Opposition may serve to indicate that communication within the organization is inadequate.

5.33423 If resistance is intense, it may serve as a signal to modify the change effort. Resistance often provides clues to the unexpected consequences of change.[1]

5.335 The manager's effectiveness as an educator for change depends in large part on the accuracy of his perception, how well he understands himself and how accurately he perceives others. He will not be able to understand and deal effectively with other people's resistance to change if he does not understand his own tendencies to resist.

5.336 Self examination is the first step an individual must take in the effort to sharpen his powers of perception.[2]

5.34 Limitations to perception.

5.341 Human perception does not operate like a camera, and no matter how hard we work at improving it, our perceptiveness has many limitations.

5.342 Not to understand another person is usually a disturbing and perplexing experience, the mores so if the situation requires that we work with this person in some kind of cooperative effort.

5.3421 A typical reaction to this disturbing experience, often unconscious, is the tendency to form a pseudo-understanding of the person, based on misunderstanding.

5.3422 Such pseudo-understanding then becomes an additional barrier to the achievement of genuine understanding.[3]

5.343 Limits of insight also occur with respect to cultural differences.

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[1]Thomas R. Bennett, "Planning for Change," in Looking into Leadership Monographs (Washington, D.C.: Leadership Resources, 1966), pp. 13-14.

[2]Ibid., p. 44.

[3]Gustav Ichheiser Appearances and Realities: Misunderstandings in Human Relations (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1970), p. 67.

It has been said we sometimes "fail to understand that people whose personalities are shaped by another culture are psychologically different."[1]

5.3431 Our reaction in such cases may be to say that this person doesn't understand things as they really are, thus implying that our way of perceiving and understanding is the right way.

5.3432 It is not uncommon in our country today to hear spokesmen for minority groups say that the majority of Americans are unable to understand members of minority groups because they have been raised in a very different culture.

5.344 The administrator must always be aware of the fact that his own perceptiveness is limited, influenced by his own backgroup and experiences. As Likert has pointed out, "each of us, as a subordinate or as peers and superiors, reacts in terms of his own particular background, experience, and expectations."[2]

5.35 Understanding is a prerequisite of leadership.

5.351 In order to understand one must be able to listen. Some thirty years ago, Roethlisberger pointed out the importance to management of understanding and listening. "Whenever one undergoes this experience of sitting down and patiently listening to an individual, not with the purpose of making any moral judgments, but with the purpose of trying to understand why he feels and acts as he does, a new outlook is likely to develop."[3]

5.352 Based on results of the Hawthorne Studies, Roethlisberger drew up a set of guidelines by which the administrator or supervisor may best understand those with whom he works.[4]

5.3521 The supervisor should listen patiently to what his subordinate has to say before making any comment himself.

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[1]Ibid., p. 70.

[2]Rensis Likert, "A Motivational Approach to a Modified Theory of Organization and Management," in Mason Haire, ed. Modern Organization Theory (New York: Wiley, 1959), p. 191.

[3]F.J. Roethlisberger, Management and Morale (Cambridge, Mass: Harvard, 1941), p. 40.

[4]Ibid., pp. 41-43.

5.3523 He should refrain from any hasty criticism of the subordinate's conduct.

5.3524 The supervisor should not pay exclusive attention to the manifest content of the conversation, for we all have the tendency to rationalize and present things in lights most favorable to us.

5.3525 The supervisor should listen not only to what a person wants to say, but also to what he does not want to say or cannot say without assistance.

5.353 The manager must be aware of differences in perception. As leader of a work group, he will perceive a situation differently than a group member with no special responsibility.

5.3531 The leader must therefore find out what the other person sees, by inquiring and listening to what he says.

5.3532 "By being aware of a difference in perception, the leader can check both views against the facts, thus taking advantage of an opportunity to modify behavior -- the other person's, or his own -- by changing one basis of it -- the perception of the facts."[1]

1 Paul C. Buchanan, "Individual Motivation," in Looking Into Leadership Monographs (Washington, D.C. : Leadership Resources, 1966), p. 7.

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UNIT 5
ENRICHMENT MODULE 3

Enrichment Module 3, Bibliography

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Some useful guidelines for the manager on planning and anlyzing change, including discussion of the importance in change efforts of both attitudes and perception. The approach is practical, the style popular.

Brouwer, Paul J. "The Power to See Ourselves," in William B. Eddy and others, eds. Behavioral Science and the Manager's Role. Washington, D.C.: NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, 1969, pp. 37-50.

A discussion of the manager's self-concept and why it is important to him personally and to his job.

Buchanan, Paul C. "Individual Motivation," in Looking into Leadership Monographs. Washington, D.C.: Leadership Resources, 1966.

An examination of the relationships between perception and motivation in the work place, written for managers in a popular style.

Harrison, Roger. "Defenses and the Need to Know," in William B. Eddy and others, eds. Behavioral Science and the Manager's Role. Washingto, Washington, D.C.: NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, 1969, pp. 64-70.

Learning is not increased by destroying perceptual defenses. The challenge of the manager is to create situations where people will not need to stay behind their defenses all of the time, and according to the author, this can be done by creating relationships of mutual support, respect, and trust.

Ichheiser, Gustav. Appearances and Realities: Misunderstanding in Human Relations. San Francisco· Jossey-Bass, 1970.

A thoughtful discussion of personality, interpersonal relations, and social perception, including the importance of attitudes and images. The author makes the point that the dynamics of human relations can only be understood if approached from the point of view of each participant and from the point of view of an outside observer.

Likert, Rensis. "A Motivational Approach to a Modified Theory of Organization and Management," in Mason Haire, ed., Modern Organization Theory. New York: Wiley, 1959, pp. 184-217.

Likert discusses the importance of motivation, its relation to perception and some implications of both for management.

Roethlisberger, F.J. Management and Morale. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard, 1941.

Roethlisberger emphasizes the importance of the manager's understanding human situations on the job -- both individual and group. Human collaboration is the subject of the book, and he believes collaboration cannot be left to change, but must be carefully cultivated. The influence and importance of perception are discussed in some detail.

Rogers, Carl R. "Toward Becoming a Fully Functioning Person," in William B. Eddy and others, eds. Behavioral Science and the Manager's Role. Washington, D.C.: NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, 1969, pp. 51-63.

What is my purpose in life? What am I striving for? The author sees a pattern, a direction, and a commonality in people's tentative answers to such questions, and he discusses his observations in some detail in this short article.

See also the bibliography on perception in Unit 4, pp. 173.